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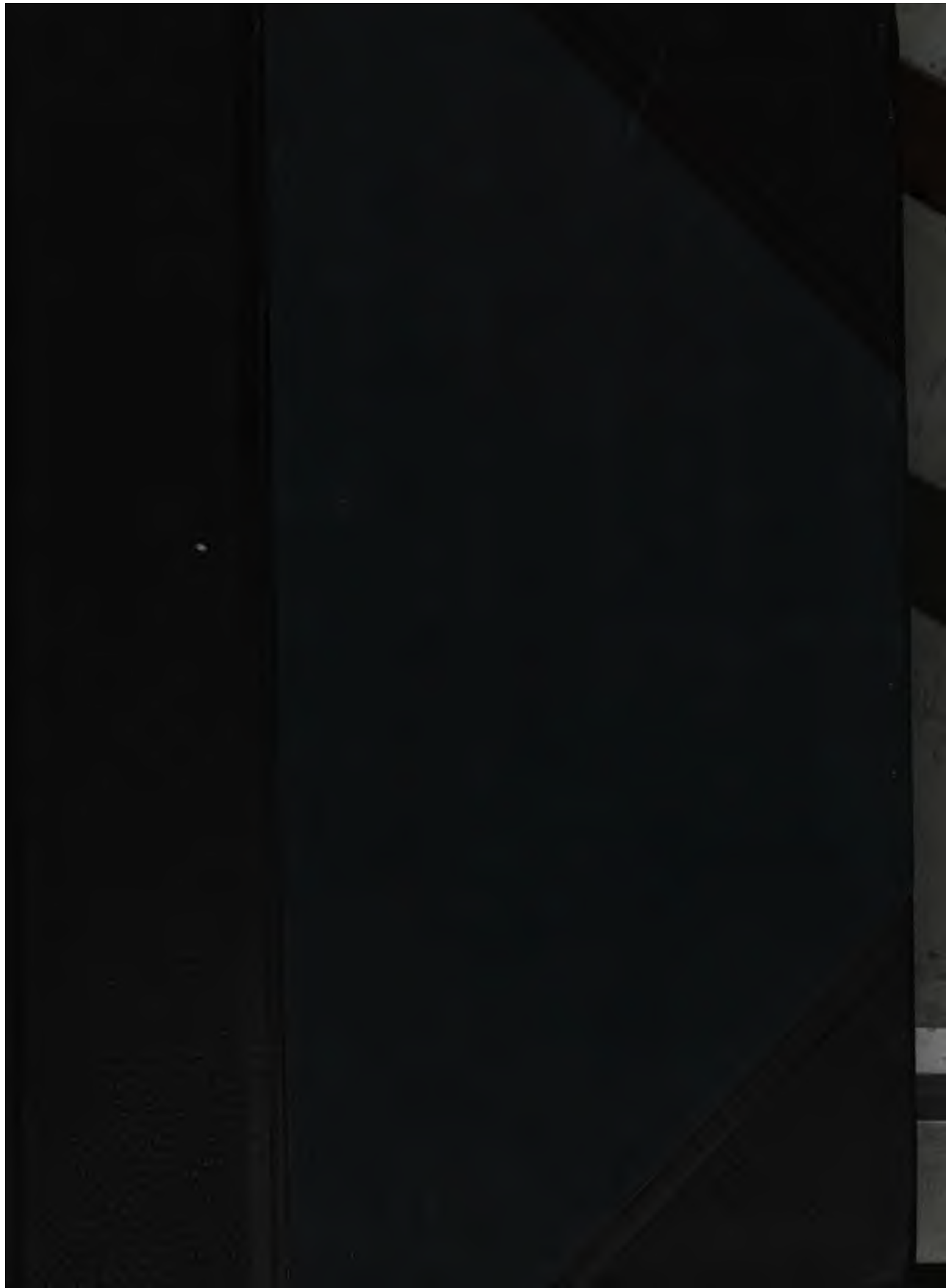
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HISTORY OF MAINE

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Nath Hawthorne

MAINE

A HISTORY

CENTENNIAL EDITION

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Chapter XXII
REPUBLICAN ASCENDENCY—
RECENT YEARS



RESIDENCE OF LATE JOHN F. HILL, AUGUSTA



RESIDENCE OF LATE JAMES G. BLAINE, AUGUSTA

CHAPTER XXII

REPUBLICAN ASCENDENCY—RECENT YEARS

The inauguration of Governor Robie was the beginning of a Republican supremacy which lasted for nearly thirty years. For much of the period there is comparatively little that is interesting in the political history of the State, except the great part played by Maine men at Washington.

In 1883, however, the Legislature took an important step in the development of the prohibitory policy by submitting a constitutional amendment forbidding the manufacture of intoxicating liquors, except cider, and the sale or keeping for sale of intoxicating liquors. But the Legislature was given authority to permit the sale of cider, and of liquors to be used for medicinal and mechanical purposes and in the arts. In the House of Representatives a motion was made to strike out the cider exemption, but it was defeated by a vote of 84 to 56, and the amendment was passed, the test vote standing 104 to 37. In the Senate there were only three noes. The amendment was to be acted on at the next State election and an attempt was made to make ratification depend on the obtaining of a majority of the number of votes cast for Governor, but the motion was defeated. In 1884 the amendment was submitted to the people and ratified by a large majority, the vote standing: yeas, 70,783; nays, 23,811. There were, however, 47,513 men who voted for Governor who did not take the trouble to vote on the amendment, and had the requirement of a majority of the votes for Governor been necessary for ratification, the amendment would have lacked 271 votes of the number needed to pass it. It is probable, however, that had there been doubt of its success the number of affirmative votes would have been larger.

In 1884 Mr. Blaine at last received the Republican nomination for the presidency. He led on the first three ballots and was nominated on the fourth. But in his own section he was weak. He had throughout the unanimous support of Maine, but on the first ballot he obtained but one vote from the rest of New England, and even on the last ballot received only thirteen. The Democrats nominated Grover Cleveland, of New York, the candidate most likely to win the votes of dissatisfied Republicans.

In Maine the Republicans renominated Governor Robie. The Democrats chose for their candidate John B. Redman, of Ellsworth. Mr. Redman was only thirty-six years old, but he had been a delegate to the Democratic national convention of 1876 and 1880. In 1881 he had been appointed by Governor Plaisted, municipal judge of Ellsworth, which position he still held. He was also, at the time of his nomination, mayor of the city. The *Argus* described him as "energetic and a spirited and pleasing speaker."

At the election the Republicans won by a great majority, Robie receiv-

ing 78,699 votes Redman 58,954, Eaton (Greenback) 3,239, Eustis (Prohibitionist) 1,151. There were 64 scattering votes.¹

In November Mr. Blaine carried Maine, but lost the presidency because of falling by a very narrow margin to win in New York.

In 1885 there were two candidates for the Republican nomination for Governor, Joseph R. Bodwell, of Hallowell, and Augustus C. Hamlin, of Bangor, a son of Hannibal Hamlin. Hamlin had been a surgeon in the Union army and had considerable support among the ex-soldiers, but Mr. Bodwell was favored by most of the leading politicians, and when the convention met he was nominated on the first ballot by a vote of 882 to 201 for Hamlin. There was but one scattering vote.

Mr. Bodwell was born in what is now Lawrence, then Methuen, Massachusetts, on June 18, 1818, and was the tenth in a family of eleven children. The Bodwells had lived in Methuen and vicinity for a hundred and twenty-five years. The house in which the future Governor was born was occupied by five generations of the name, and the falls of the Merrimack, where the Lawrence Mills were afterward built, were known as Bodwell's Falls. The family, however, was not wealthy, its members were merely well-to-do farmers. Joseph's father met with financial reverses and the boy received but a scanty education. He became a member of the family of a childless sister, and "assisted his brother-in-law upon the farm, aided his sister in her household duties, attended the district school, learned the cordwainer's trade, and devoted his evenings and mornings to mending and making shoes." He later became part owner of the farm and acquired a fondness for agriculture and stock raising which he never lost. Like his father, he was also a teamster, and he and a brother were employed in hauling granite from New Hampshire for the Lawrence dam. He here became familiar with the numerous processes involved in quarrying, handling and working granite. A few years later, in company with a friend, Moses Webster, with whom he had worked in the quarries, he came to South Fox Island, now Vinalhaven, and the two began business as independent operators, but in a very modest way. It is said that at first Mr. Bodwell drove the ox-team used in moving the granite, and shod the animals with his own hands. "Soon the business increased, the firm name became Bodwell, Webster & Company, and capital sought investment in the new enterprise. The next change was the organization of the Bodwell Granite Company, with a sufficient capital, and leading business men to aid in the management of its affairs, but the moving and master spirit from the very first was Joseph R. Bodwell, who, soon after he came to Maine, was recognized as the leading granite man of the United States. He was chosen the first president of the company and held that position to the day of his death. Under his prudent and energetic management it became the leading granite corporation in the country. Mr. Bodwell had long felt the need, in his

¹The vote is given according to the intention of the voters, not the wording of the ballots.

business operations, of granite of a lighter color and finer texture than that which he had quarried at Vinalhaven, for monumental work and for artistic designs in architecture. The Hallowell granite presented all these rare qualities, and in 1866 Mr. Bodwell moved his family from Methuen to Hallowell, and a little later organized the Hallowell Granite Company, of which he was made president and chief executive officer. Soon after the company was organized the business assumed huge proportions. The products of the association have been sent into almost every State in the Union. Its colossal statuary, rivalling in durability and beauty the finest marble, is to be found in all our great cities from Portland to New Orleans, and it has an increasing and widely extending demand."

Bodwell granite was used for the State, War and Navy Department building at Washington, Masonic Temple, Record building, and Pennsylvania Railroad Passenger Station, Philadelphia, the New York and Brooklyn bridge, numerous buildings in New York City, the State Capitol at Albany, the Pilgrim and Yorktown monuments, and the gigantic Sphinx at Mt. Auburn cemetery at Cambridge, which was both quarried and cut at Hallowell. These are only a few of the important works for which granite was furnished, and there was also a constant call for it for soldiers' monuments and private monuments, in towns and small cities. "The active mind of Governor Bodwell, not content with the business intrusted to him by the two great granite companies, sought investment and profit in other enterprises. He had interests in ice and lumbering on the Kennebec, in land, lumbering and milling operations on the Penobscot, in several water supply companies, and in a projected line of railway between New York and Boston. A minor operation, but one which promised important results, was the development of a seaside resort at Cape Small Point, on the coast of Maine. . . . In 1879, in partnership with Mr. Hall C. Burleigh, Governor Bodwell commenced the importation of pure-bred stock, and this was continued for several years. The importations embraced Hereford, Polled Angus and Sussex cattle, and Shropshire and Dorset sheep."

Before his nomination for Governor, Mr. Bodwell had taken little part in politics, but he was a zealous Republican, served two terms as Representative from Hallowell, and two terms as mayor of the city. He was a man of excellent character, spotless both in public and private life, unyielding as his own granite in the maintenance of what he believed to be right. With this firmness went great kindness. His relations with his workmen were of the best. He took a personal interest in them individually and was ready and even eager to help them on. He was an ardent prohibitionist. It was said of him after his death: "He believed in temperance, and in the enforcement of the laws against the infamous traffic in intoxicating drinks. No previous Governor of Maine had manifested so much interest in this matter, and while he thereby made enemies of parties in interest, the law-abiding citizens of the State, and all those whose support is of any value, were rallying around him. He believed in kindness to dumb animals, and

nothing vexed him more than their abuse, either from lack of food, from overloading, or from the unreasonable application of the whip or goad, by those in his employ. He made it a practice to caution all newly hired teamsters that their term of office would depend very much upon the treatment of the animals committed to their care. His kind and sympathetic nature rebelled against the ill-treatment of either animal or person. He was especially kind to the young, and among his sincerest mourners are little children, to whom he has spoken words of encouragement or aided in a more material way. He received his friends with generous, old-fashioned hospitality, and with no useless forms and ceremonies. In his family he was kind and indulgent, gratifying every reasonable desire, a model husband and father."

The Democrats, had they acted according to custom, would have given Judge Redman an uncontested renomination, but one faction of the party was strongly opposed to his candidacy, and after the convention met he withdrew. At the last moment the leaders agreed to nominate Clarke Edwards, of Bethel, who had served with much distinction in the Civil War as colonel of the Fifth Maine, and the convention ratified the choice.

In the campaign the Democrats made the most of the failure of the Republicans to nominate Hamlin, and of the fact that Bodwell was the politicians' candidate. They also endeavored to arouse prejudice against him on account of his wealth. The *Argus* said, "While Colonel Edwards was engaged in putting down a gigantic rebellion, Mr. Bodwell was engaged in building up a gigantic fortune." It quoted from the *Lewiston Gazette* a charge against the Republicans that "The mark of the machine is on all their work. They have ruthlessly ridden down all opposition and butchered the soldiers' candidate without mercy. They have nominated a man who, though doubtless respectable and intelligent personally, is but clay in the hands of potter Blaine. If elected, he will be but the figurehead of the ring and will carry out their behests with the faith and simplicity of a child. That is why they have fought so hard to get him. They know their man and have more than a casual acquaintance with the fat wallet in his breeches' pocket." The *Argus* also quoted with approval a statement of the *Boston Herald* that Bodwell was a self-made man, but a machine-made candidate. The Republicans did not attack Colonel Edwards except by pointing out that a good soldier was often a failure in civil life, but they reminded the people of the count-out, said that the Democrats had brought the State to the verge of anarchy, that they had never repented, and that men prominent in the affair were still leaders in the Democratic party.

The election resulted in a decisive victory for the Republicans, Bodwell leading Edwards by nearly 14,000 votes. The official returns gave Bodwell 68,991 votes, Edwards 55,289, Clark (Prohibitionist) 3,868. There were 23 scattering votes.

Mr. Bodwell's governorship was on the whole an able and successful one. He did not, however, live to complete his term, but died on Decem-



Edwin C. Burleigh.

ber 15, 1887, the second and last Governor of Maine to die in office. He was succeeded by the president of the Senate, Sebastian S. Marble.

The year 1888 was that of a presidential election, and the friends of James G. Blaine worked most zealously to give him the Republican nomination. He was indeed the natural leader. President Cleveland had devoted his annual message of December, 1887, to an attack upon the tariff and the protective system. Mr. Blaine was in Paris at the time, but he immediately replied by an interview with a correspondent of the New York *Tribune*, setting forth the other side of the controversy, and the campaign was fought with the tariff as the main issue. But in spite of the urgency of his friends, Mr. Blaine refused to be a candidate. He believed that the election would be close, and that as there were other men seeking the nomination from pivotal States, he would be defeated if nominated. There was also a feeling of wounded pride. Thinking that he had a just claim to another nomination, having made so good a run in 1884, he would not stoop to struggle for what should have come unsolicited. But he was king maker, if not king. At the time of the Republican convention Mr. Blaine was visiting Andrew Carnegie in Scotland, and with his assent Mr. Carnegie sent a cipher telegram to a Republican leader advising the selection of Harrison. Blaine's supporters accordingly turned to the Indiana statesman and he was nominated.

In Maine there was a vigorous contest for the nomination for Governor. Governor Marble wished for another term. Henry B. Cleaves, of Portland, and State Treasurer Burleigh, formerly of Aroostook and Bangor, and now of Augusta, were fighting hard for the place. Burleigh was pre-eminently the eastern candidate. Hannibal Hamlin wished to go to the convention at the head of a Bangor delegation that would vote for his old lieutenant, Marble, but the Bangor leaders refused. They were willing to so far defer to Mr. Hamlin's former position and services as to send him to the convention at liberty to vote for whom he pleased, but more they would not do, and Mr. Hamlin refused to compromise. The feeling in the convention was extremely bitter. But when the vote was taken Burleigh won easily on the first ballot, receiving 775 votes to 473 for Cleaves and 190 for Marble.

Edwin C. Burleigh was born in Linnaeus, Maine, on November 27, 1843, and was educated at the schools of the town and at Houlton Academy. During the Civil War he attempted to enlist, but was rejected on account of his health. He then became a clerk in the office of the adjutant-general, serving until the close of the war. For some years he was a land surveyor and farmer. In 1870 he became a clerk in the land office, his father being land agent, and was himself land agent in 1876-77-78. In 1880 he became a clerk in the treasurer's office and moved to Augusta. In 1885 he was elected State Treasurer, and continued to hold the office until his nomination for Governor.

Mr. Burleigh was a man of kindly nature and agreeable manners, per-

suasive and a good organizer. He was not an orator, but he looked carefully after the interests of his district and his constituents. When Governor, he defeated an attempt to remove the capital to Portland, and when the State was to buy a muster field secured the selection of old Camp Keyes, in Augusta.

In Congress, to which he was chosen in 1896, he was very successful in obtaining public buildings for his district, and his principal achievement was defeating a census bill reported by the census committee and procuring the passage of a substitute which, at the expense of a larger House, prevented Maine's representation from being reduced.

The Democrats unanimously nominated William L. Putnam, of Portland, a man of great ability as a lawyer and of the highest character. He was, however, vulnerable in that he had been appointed by President Cleveland a commissioner to negotiate an agreement with Canada in regard to the fisheries and had assented to terms which were regarded by the American fishermen as unsatisfactory. The convention, too, was much troubled by the prohibition issue. The majority of the committee on resolutions reported one in favor of license, but the convention struck it out.

The *Belfast Age* believed that a mistake had been made, but the *New Age*, of Augusta, thought that the convention had acted wisely. It said: "This is presidential year, and President Cleveland's tariff reform message is the paramount national issue. All Democrats in Maine are as one man back of the President on that issue. It would indeed be poor politics, as Mr. Putnam said, to introduce another issue, a side issue which would divide the party. The people never decide but one issue at a time. The Democracy of Maine could not accept the local issue tendered without turning their backs on their President, without wheeling out of the battle line led by him. 'One war at a time'."

The election in September showed that while the Democrats may have approved the President's tariff policy, the people as a whole did not. Burleigh led Putnam by 18,000 votes. The official returns were: Burleigh, 79,401; Putnam, 61,348; Cushing (Prohibitionist), 3,109; Simmons (Labor), 1,526; scattering, 20.

In November Harrison carried the country, obtaining a good majority in the electoral college, but receiving only a plurality of the popular vote.

The *Argus* took the result very coolly. After the Maine election it remarked: "We gave them a great fight anyhow, and their pocketbooks are pretty empty now, [they] can't spend the money elsewhere. The returns show that the cause of revenue reform is making progress in this State, though at not so rapid a pace as some expected and more hoped for." When Harrison was elected the *Argus* again received the news with calmness. It also indulged in a hesitating prophecy which time justified. It said that Mr. Cleveland "accepts the results of the election in the brave, manly way which was to be expected of him. When he quits the occupancy

of the White House next March, it may not be forever, who can tell?" It also spoke of Harrison in complimentary terms.

The period of 1888-1889 is one of distinguished honor for Maine. In this short time she saw one son become Chief Justice of the United States, another Speaker of the National House, and a son by adoption Secretary of State.

Early in 1888, Chief Justice Waite died and President Cleveland filled the vacancy by the appointment of Melville Weston Fuller. His father's family were well known in Augusta, his uncle, B. A. G. Fuller, being a prominent Democratic politician and for some years editor of the *Age*. His mother was a daughter of Chief Justice Weston and her mother was a daughter of Judge Daniel Cony, who played a prominent part in the history of the District of Maine. Melville Fuller was born in Augusta on February 11, 1833. He graduated from Bowdoin in 1853, studied a year at the Harvard Law School, practiced law in Augusta, and was associated with his uncle in the editorship of the *Age*. In 1856 he removed to Chicago and continued at the bar until his appointment as Chief Justice. He took some part in State politics and showed himself a thoroughgoing Democrat.

His political principles differed widely from those of most of his associates on the bench, and this alone would have prevented him from leading the court. Probably, too, he would not have been able to do this had his views of the Constitution and of political science more nearly coincided with those of his colleagues. The *Nation* said of him after his death: "Judge Fuller was no Marshall or Miller to impose upon his brethren the unifying conclusions of an intellect of greater range and deeper penetration than their own." Yet in some respects the Chief Justice was peculiarly well fitted for his place. President Hyde of Bowdoin said of him:

"A Democrat from lifelong conviction, a strict constructionist profoundly distrustful of the prevailing tendency to extend Federal authority over business affairs, he was often in the minority; and often opposed not only to popular views, but to what many believed to be the inevitable trend of progress. Yet such was his profound knowledge of the law; his wide scholarship, his practical wisdom, his transparent fairness, his gracious courtesy, his genial humor, that he kept men of the most sharply opposed views in harmonious personal relations, expedited business, and held the Court throughout this long and trying period above the slightest suspicion of partisanship or favoritism.

"To his professional attainment he added rare literary and social gifts which adorned the office he so ably filled. Though his life was spent chiefly in Chicago and Washington, he never forgot the friends of his native city and his beloved college. Loyalty to all whom he loved, fidelity to all with which he had ever been identified, whether in family or college, business or friendship, church or State; loyalty and fidelity at whatever cost of inconvenience and sacrifice, were the traits that endeared him to his host of associates and friends.

"The one great word that sums up his character is integrity: not merely integrity in the popular meaning of the word as common honesty, superiority to all forms of bribery, corruption and undue influence. That,

in a man of his high station in these days, we expect as a matter of course, and take for granted. Though it is a satisfaction to know that before he was Chief Justice, while still a lawyer to whom an assured income would have been most welcome, he refused an offered retainer which would have made him independently rich, because he knew that law and justice were not on the side of the man who offered it. But he had the deeper and rarer quality which the word integrity etymologically means: that unbroken wholeness of life, from which nothing that has once proved precious is ever suffered to drop out; nothing is tolerated at one time or in one set of circumstances which is inconsistent with what one aims to be at all times and in all circumstances."⁸

Mr. Harrison's nomination and election had been largely due to Mr. Blaine, and he showed his sense of obligation and of Mr. Blaine's position in the party by tendering him the office of Secretary of State, which Mr. Blaine accepted. In considering his work in this office, it will be convenient to begin with some notice of what he did during his brief service under Presidents Garfield and Arthur.

Unlike earlier Secretaries of State who had usually been content to deal with questions as they arose, Mr. Blaine had a definite, aggressive policy of Pan-Americanism. The Monroe Doctrine was to be liberally interpreted and vigorously enforced; arbitration was to take the place of war between the American nations; and inter-American commerce, particularly that of the United States, was to be favored and developed. The new Secretary lost no time in endeavoring to realize his ideal. France was threatening to enforce claims against Venezuela by a seizure of the custom-houses. To avoid such interference in American affairs, Mr. Blaine advised Venezuela to pay the sum demanded, and directed the American Minister to hint that if she did not, the United States might herself occupy the custom-houses and pay France out of the revenues. Mexico was pressing Guatemala hard in a boundary dispute, Chili had substantially conquered Peru and Bolivia in war and her terms of peace were very severe. Mr. Blaine urged moderation on Mexico and Chili. On his initiative the President invited the American nations, except such as were at war with each other, to join the United States in a conference at Washington to discuss the means of securing permanent peace. Before the time fixed for the conference to meet arrived, Mr. Blaine had left office with the rest of the Garfield Cabinet, and although President Arthur had approved the invitations, he now first suspended and then withdrew them and reversed Mr. Blaine's policy.

Mr. Blaine, however, continued to work for Pan-Americanism as a private citizen, and with considerable success. In 1888 Congress passed a bill for the calling of a Pan-American Congress, and as Secretary of State under Harrison he joyfully resumed the work he had been obliged to abandon eight years before.

"The congress was well attended and ably managed by Blaine, who was elected its president. Nothing could be done on the subject of arbitra-

⁸Bowdoin *Orient*, Oct. 7, 1910.

tion; but uniform sanitary regulations were drawn up, the survey of an intercontinental railroad was arranged, the principle of the free navigation of international rivers was endorsed, and agreements, not quite universal, were made concerning trademarks, patents, and extradition. The formation of reciprocity treaties between the several nations was recommended. One thing of real importance was accomplished—the foundation of the Bureau of the American Republics, located at Washington, supported jointly by the nations concerned, and charged with the collection of information. Actually permanent, its functions grew till it became a lasting, though not a strong, element of union.

"The vitality of the whole scheme rested on the development of commercial relations, a process that Blaine sought to stimulate by treaties of reciprocity. Such treaties had been authorized in 1884, and a few were drawn up under Arthur, but they were withdrawn by Cleveland. In 1890 the Republican majority in Congress was working over the McKinley tariff bill. In this document sugar, coffee, hides, and other such commodities, our most important assets for international customs bartering, were put on the free list. If the bill passed in this form, therefore, we should have no favors to offer American countries. Blaine threw himself into opposition. July 11, 1890, he wrote to Senator Frye, 'There is not a section or a line in the entire bill that will open a market for another bushel of (American) wheat or another barrel of pork.' His position was supported by western sentiment, and Senator Hale of Maine offered an amendment representing his views. His plan provided for a duty on the commodities in question, but empowered the President 'to declare the ports of the United States free and open to all products of any nation of the American hemisphere upon which no export duties are imposed, whenever and so long as such nation shall admit to its ports, free of all' duties of whatsoever nature, certain enumerated products of the United States, or such other products as might be agreed upon."

There was much opposition to Mr. Blaine's proposal, and the Hale amendment was dropped, but authority was given to the President to impose duties on sugar, tea, coffee and hides (which were to be free) if the country from which they came laid duties on imports from the United States that in the opinion of the President were "unequal and unreasonable."

There were differences with European governments, which Secretary Blaine handled in his usual vigorous way. In his first term he tried in vain to induce England to consent to the abrogation of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. In his second term he was engaged in a long dispute with Lord Salisbury over the Behring Sea seal fisheries, which ended in a reference to arbitration, and the defeat of the United States. With Germany there was a serious dispute over Samoan affairs, which was temporarily settled in a manner satisfactory to this country. The final negotiations were conducted at Berlin, and the American commissioners cabled to Washington that Bismarck was angry, and that without yielding somewhat they feared that everything would be lost. Mr. Blaine cabled in response that "the

*He had previously written to McKinley: "Such movements as this for protection will protect the Republican party into a speedy retirement."

*Fish, "American Diplomacy," 388-389.

extent of the Chancellor's irritability is not the measure of American rights." There was trouble even with American countries. With Chili, diplomatic relations were broken, but she yielded and so prevented war.

Several of Mr. Blaine's successes proved to be merely temporary. His "blustering policy" to Chili, although that country had given great provocation, had the unhappy result that "the suspicions with which the Spanish-American States had regarded Blaine were confirmed, and the memory of his pleasing personality and eloquent appeals for kindness and co-operation vanished." The arrangement in regard to Samoa preserved the independence of the country in form rather than in fact, and even the form was not long maintained, the islands being divided between Germany and the United States. The commercial agreements negotiated under the reciprocity provisions of the McKinley Act were declared by President Cleveland to have been abrogated by the Wilson law of 1894.

Professor Fish in his "American Diplomacy" says of Mr. Blaine:

"Charlatan and genius, he sought to recommend his plan of peace and co-operation in America by a persistent baiting of Europe. Although Blaine seemed to make little impression on the solid opinion of his time, some of his policies have proved to be permanently American. The idea of United States control of the canal, which was not original with him but which he made his own, returned later, and apparently to stay. So, too, the conception of the United States as an intermediary between American and European nations is incorporated in our statute books in the case of San Domingo. He was among the first of our public men to observe the changing conditions of our commerce. That with this ability he should have combined the arts of the blatant hawker after votes, thereby uselessly aggravating the powers of Europe; that, with the splendid scope of his plan of international co-operation in America, he should in the eighties have imagined that the two hemispheres could be divided, not in political ideals as Adams in the twenties has (had) said they were, but commercially, were evidences of a power of intuitive perception unaccompanied either by comprehensive knowledge or by a capacity for thinking things through."

Thomas Brackett Reed was born on October 18, 1839. He was descended from Thomas Reade, who came to Massachusetts with Governor Winthrop in 1630. His grandmother, Mary Brackett Reed, was a descendant of George Cleeve. Mr. Reed, however, took but a moderate interest in his genealogy, and Governor McCall says in his "Life of Reed" that "His utterances upon the subject were usually in a light vein, and are consistent with a mild indifference toward ancestor worship as an established form of religion." Reed came of a vigorous stock. His grandfather lived to the age of eighty-two, and his father to that of eighty-five. Reed's father was for many years a sailor, mate or captain of packets running between Boston and the Maine coast. Later he was night watchman at Brown's sugar house. His means were moderate, and he mortgaged his home to obtain the

¹The Republicans had carried the House as well as the Presidency and this gave the speakership to Representative Reed, of Portland, one of the ablest and most interesting men that Maine ever sent to public life.

money to send his son to college. Young Reed had a very active boyhood, one well calculated to develop courage and character. Writing of a somewhat later time, he said: "Boys do not do much of anything nowadays. They are much more comfortable to get along with. Now they are civilized, but they have lost much on the score of picturesqueness. Doubtless there are still gleams of old-time savagery, which lighten up the home circle and cheer the hearts of mothers, but the boy as a public institution no longer thrills the heart and engrosses the mind." He classified the boys of his day as the "Brackett Street boys, the Center-Streeters, and the Christian Shorers," and added, "beyond them, in the unknown regions about Munjoy Hill, were savage and warlike tribes of whom we did not even know the names." "In the good old days one could as easily have marched to the Pacific coast as from Brackett Street to Munjoy Hill." Mr. Reed had the good fortune to receive an excellent high school education under a remarkable headmaster. Years after, Reed wrote to his old instructor: "If a boy had honor or ambition in him, you knew how to make successful appeals to it. . . . You made us understand you never let us go away with half knowledge." In 1856 Reed entered Bowdoin with the class of 1860. He was not quite seventeen, one of the youngest "men" in the class, but his excellent preparation under Master Lyford enabled him to maintain a high relative standing with only moderate effort. In his senior year he threw himself into the work and led his class, obtaining an almost perfect mark and distancing all except Symonds, later Judge Symonds of the Maine Supreme Court. For the last three years taken together (the ranks of his freshman year are not obtainable) he was fifth.

It was only through the kindness of William Pitt Fessenden that Reed was able to graduate. His father could but partly meet the expenses of his course. Reed himself, like many another student, earned money by teaching school in the long vacations which then came in the winter. But some three months before graduation he found his savings spent and he resolved to leave college. His room-mate his senior year was Samuel Fessenden, son of William Pitt Fessenden. Samuel, hearing of Reed's purpose, applied to his father for help, and Mr. Fessenden in the kindest manner loaned Reed two hundred dollars and so enabled him to graduate.

Reed's life for the next few years was a very varied one. He taught in the Portland high school, and for a few months in California, studied law, and during the latter part of the Civil War was acting assistant paymaster in the Mississippi squadron. In a speech delivered in 1884 before the Loyal Legion he thus described his service:

"It was a delightful life. Thirteen hundred dollars a year and one ration, and nothing to do. My sad heart hath often panted for it since. However, I learned that my country could support me, and I am bound to say it has faithfully done so most ever since. What a charming life that was, that dear old life in the Navy! I knew all the regulations and the rest of them didn't. I had all my rights and most of theirs. . . . Do

you wonder that I stand up for the Navy? I want it increased and I have solid reasons for it. It means something to me.

"Mr. Commander and companions: I have made this speech to you in the lightest vein because I have no right to use any other. The brave faces that I see before me have been bared to the shock of battle and of storm. You have seen a hundred battle-fields, the living and the dead. It would be a shame for me to talk seriously of service to men like you. This button—insignia of the order—you wear because you honor it. I wear it because it honors *me*."

After leaving the navy he began the practice of law in Portland, and a little later served in the Maine House and Senate. In 1870 he was elected Attorney-General, and held that office for three years. In 1876 he was sent to the National House and remained there until his voluntary retirement in 1899. In the second session of his first term he took an active part in an investigation of the election of 1876, which had been started by the Democrats with the hope of obtaining evidence of fraud by which they might drive President Hayes from the White House. Reed was the most active of the thoroughgoing Republicans on the committee, and his brilliant examination of witnesses contributed much to the discrediting of the Democratic charges and to throwing suspicion of attempts at bribery on Tilden himself. By the close of the investigation all thought of ousting Hayes from the presidency had been abandoned, and the "fraud of 1876" which was to have been the chief Democratic campaign cry in 1880 had been reduced to a minor and discredited issue.

Mr. Reed gradually made himself the leader of the Republicans in the House; in 1881 he had some support for the speakership, and in 1885 and 1887 he received the nomination of the Republicans for that office, but as the Democrats were in control, this merely made him leader of the minority. In the autumn of 1888 the Republicans carried the House, though by only 12 majority, and Reed was elected Speaker. He did not, however, obtain the uncontested renomination which his services deserved. On the first ballot there was no choice by the caucus; on the second he received one more than a majority of votes, and was chosen. His principal opponent was William McKinley of Ohio.

Reed's speakership was perhaps the most memorable in the history of the House. Custom had allowed members to break a quorum by sitting quietly in their seats when a vote was taken. Ten years before, Reed himself had ably defended the practice. But it had become a means of stopping all business. The Republicans had less than a dozen majority; sickness, business and other causes would inevitably draw members away, it would become impossible to maintain a quorum from their own ranks, and the Democrats could prevent legislation at will. Mr. Reed had for some time been impressed by the unfairness of allowing a minority to hold up all public business. He determined to reverse precedents, reverse his own publicly expressed opinions and "count a quorum,"—that is, cause to be entered as present, members whom he saw before him but who refused to

answer to their names. He knew that he must expect the bitterest denunciation, that he might not be able to induce all of his own party to support so radical a change, and that if a few refused to follow him he would be helpless. But he determined to make the effort, and stake his political career on the result. Should he fail he would leave Congress and practice law, and he made conditional arrangements to enter the office of Elihu Root. But he did not fail. His act aroused a fearful storm. He was called a despot, a Czar and a usurper; "for three days the House was a perfect bedlam," but "he gave no evidence of disturbance, much less of fear. In one of his impressive appearance, giant-like stature, and deep, penetrating gaze, it was impossible to imagine the existence of such a quality even had a gun been leveled at his head. Nor could one discern in gesture or in accent the slightest sign of resentment. He counted coolly, he listened patiently, and he spoke pleasantly, using the lower tones of his voice, which were of great sweetness. 'I deny your right, Mr. Speaker, to count me as present, and I desire to read from the parliamentary law on that subject,' shouted a member as he held up the book in his hand. With his customary coolness and drawl, Reed replied: 'The chair is making a statement of fact that the gentleman from Kentucky is here. Does he deny it?' This simple question and the laughter that followed, indicated the strength of his position. In fact, he acted as one inspired by the consciousness not only of being right, but of feeling sure that his loudest and most riotous opponent would in time approve and follow the new departure. Nevertheless, when resting for brief intervals in the seclusion of his private room, he relieved himself of a pent-up fury that struck terror to the heart of Amos L. Allen, his amiable college classmate and devoted clerk. After such an exhibition of feeling it seemed unhuman that he could again preside with gentle, calm firmness. But as he began, so he continued to the end, betraying no sign of the unquenchable fire within, except that occasionally, with a powerful, strident voice, reaching the farthest corner of the great chamber, he dropped a sentence of destructive ridicule, which, for the moment at least, stilled the uproar and threw his party supporters into cheers."^a

At last his contention was sustained on appeal, and was incorporated into an addition to the rules of the House. Reed had also refused to put motions on the ground that they were made simply for purposes of delay, and these decisions were likewise made a part of the new rules. It was a great triumph and also a permanent one. When the Democrats recovered power in 1893 they promptly repealed Reed's rules, but the ex-Speaker bided his time and when the opportunity came, led so powerful a filibuster that the Democrats were obliged, themselves, to adopt in substance the rule they had so bitterly assailed and count a quorum. Since then the principle has been recognized by both parties.

Reed was not merely one of the able men to be found in every Con-

^aAlexander, "History and Procedure of the House of Representatives," 168-169.

gress, he possessed a marked individuality in person, in mind, and in character. "He had a massive figure. He stood about six feet two inches in height, and weighed probably two hundred and seventy-five pounds. His eyes, under great arches of brow, were hazel, and were large and brilliant. They were such eyes as one rarely sees, and stamped him unmistakably as a man of genius. He was bald, and his head and face were of such a type as to lead Henry Irving to say that he looked like the Stratford bust of Shakespeare." He spoke slowly, with a slight drawl, not affected, but natural to the man, which added immensely to the wit and drollery in which he loved to indulge. His retorts at times were biting. After replying to a member who had persisted in interrupting him, he added, "Now having embalmed that fly in the liquid amber of my discourse, I wish to proceed."

Reed had a special dislike for Representative Springer of Illinois, for which indeed that gentleman seems to have given considerable provocation. Mr. Alexander says: "Springer was neither sincere nor intellectually honest. Loquacious, often frivolous and never impressive, he seemed to be always on his feet and apparently indifferent to the position he assumed. It was in defense of some vagary that he remarked, 'I'd rather be right than President.' To which Reed flashed the retort, 'The gentleman from Illinois will never be either.' Reed delighted in pricking him. On one occasion Springer asked unanimous consent to correct a statement. 'No correction needed,' piped up Reed; 'we didn't think it was so when you made it.' When Springer accused the Maine statesman of making light of his remarks, Reed replied, 'If I 'make light' of his remarks, it is more than he ever makes of them himself.'"

But it was not his foes alone who felt the cut of Reed's sarcasm. He was a friend and admirer of Mr. Roosevelt, but he is reported to have once said to him, "What I specially admire about you, Theodore, is your enthusiasm at having discovered the Ten Commandments."

Reed was ready to defend the House of Representatives against the attacks of others, but he did not spare it himself. On one occasion he said that he early resolved to devote himself to raising the standard of virtue, that he looked around to see where virtue most needed raising, and went to Congress. Calling to inquire after a Representative who was ill, he was informed that the member was out of his head most of the time and did not know what he was talking about. "He ought to come up to the House," replied Reed, "they are all that way up there." He told Senator Hoar, "Congress sits far too long as it is. The less we have of Congress the better."

Reed's special skill was in impromptu debate. "The form of his extemporaneous speech was faultless, and his mind worked at its best under the stimulus of a hard fight and a great occasion." Yet his speech, long premeditated, against the Mills tariff bill, is pronounced by Governor McCall as powerful a speech as was ever delivered in favor of protective

duties in the House of Representatives. His magazine articles and occasional addresses move a little slowly, partly because of his fondness for philosophizing. Yet there is much in them worthy of preservation. His address at the Portland Centennial in 1886 contains a beautiful passage which has its special appeal today, when again from Reed's college and from all the colleges in the land our young men are offering, or making ready to offer the great sacrifice. Reed said:

"I have not spoken of the conduct of our city in either of the wars waged beyond its limits. That subject also would be too vast for an occasion like this. Nor do I like to speak at all of the one within the memory of us all. For us it has as much of sorrow as of glory. It brings up to me the vision of a fair young face, the quiet associate of the studious hours, the bright companion of the days of pleasure. Can it be that I shall never look into those cheerful eyes again? Can it be that neither the quaint jest of the happier hours, nor the solemn confidences of the heart just opening to a full sense of the high duties of life, will ever again fall upon the ear of friendship or of love? It can be no otherwise. He can only live in my memory, but he lives there, sublimated in the crucible of death, from all imperfections, clothed upon with all his virtues and radiant with all the possibilities of a generous youth. Other companions have failed in their careers, but not he. All the world has grown old, but he is forever young. And yet the dead, however sweetly embalmed, are but the dead. One touch of the vanished hand were worth all our dreams. All our memories, however tender, are consolation only because there can be no other, for the lost strength and vigor of the living, the stilled pulsations of a heart no longer beating to thoughts of earth. What safe my heart holds, holds many a heart in this great audience. The generations to come will celebrate the glory. This generation knows the cost."

Reed has been called a Republican of the Civil War and Reconstruction days. He had much of the high idealism of that terrible time and of the Revolution. In an unpublished paper written during the negotiations that ended with the annexation of Porto Rico and the Philippines, he said: "Our fathers did not make their Declaration of Independence as a piece of rhetoric, but as a guide of national life. It was a degenerate day which pronounced the noble words to be only glittering generalities to please the ears of children and to adorn the phrases of orators. That degeneracy has been paid for in blood."

William Roscoe Thayer claims in his life of Cavour that none of the many champions of liberty ever confided in her more loyally than did his hero, the great Italian statesman. This may well be true, but Reed may challenge an equal place. Even more perhaps than Lincoln, he believed that no one was good enough or wise enough to govern another without his own consent. He regretted the failure of the North and of the Republican party to insist that the negro's right to vote should be protected. He strongly favored woman suffrage, and in a minority report on the question of granting it by constitutional amendment he spoke with characteristic sarcasm of opposition to woman's claims for the sake of woman herself.

Reed also believed in the supreme importance of the people in history, and utterly repudiated the theory upheld by Carlyle and others that the world progressed because of its great men. In an address given at Colby in 1885 he said: "But democracy is not of yesterday. It has equal date with the race of man. Out of the great mass of each nation has come all national progress. It is not the leaders and foremost men who make a nation, it is the nation which makes the leaders. . . . The men who are on the top of these great waves get mistaken in the popular mind for the wave itself."

But Reed, despite his belief that government of and by the people is best and that the greatest political force in the world is and has been public sentiment, never regarded the masses, any more than he did the classes, as a collection of sages and saints or found the highest wisdom in the shouts of an unthinking crowd. In the paper written at the time of the annexation of Porto Rico and the Philippines, is this paragraph: "Public opinion is the foundation and the sole foundation on which any nation can rest. But it is public opinion solidified by discussion, by full and mature reflection, guided by the past as well as the present. The voice of those crying aloud in the market-places is not the voice of God either for time or for eternity. There was once a city where for the space of two solid hours all the people cried out, 'Great is Diana of the Ephesians!' For two hours public sentiment was unanimous. Yet in that very city at that very time Paul was preaching the Living God.'"

The principal incident of the campaign for Governor in Maine in 1890 was the death of one of the candidates. Shortly before the Democratic convention met, Mr. Putnam declined a renomination. The convention unanimously nominated Frank W. Hill of Exeter, the father-in-law of ex-Governor Plaisted. Mr. Hill was well acquainted with practical politics, having held various offices and served eight years on the Democratic State committee. He was also a liberal giver to churches and to the poor and entertained lavishly. With these varied experiences and qualifications he should have made a strong candidate. But about a week after his nomination he had a severe attack of bronchitis and died after a week's illness.

A second convention was called and nominated William P. Thompson of Belfast. The convention also added a plank to the June platform, setting forth at length alleged conditions regarding the sale of liquor and stating that many Democrats and Republicans thought that prohibition had been such a failure as to call for a re-submission of the policy to the people. The convention recommended the election of a Governor and Legislature who would re-submit the prohibitory amendment, and said that they were in favor of high license should the people decide against prohibition.

The Republicans renominated Governor Burleigh, who was elected by a good majority. The vote stood, Burleigh 64,259, Thompson 45,360, Aaron Clark (Prohibition) 3,864, Isaac C. Clark (Labor) 1,296.

¹General references. "McCall," "Reed," "Webb," "Thomas Brackett Reed," in *Maine Hist. Soc. Coll.*, III, 1, 369-389.

In 1892, Mr. Blaine was once more a candidate for the Republican nomination for President and under circumstances which were regretted by many of his best friends. On February 6, 1892, he wrote to the chairman of the national committee that his name would not go before the national convention, but a few earnest admirers, and other men who wished to use him as a means of injuring President Harrison, persisted in bringing forward his name. The convention was to meet on June 7. On June 4 Mr. Blaine suddenly and brusquely resigned his position as Secretary of State. This was generally interpreted as an indication of willingness to accept a nomination for the presidency. But it was too late. Mr. Harrison had the advantage of the strong support of many office-holders, of the absence, during the pre-convention campaign, of any opponent of great national prestige, and of the fact that he had given the country an able and honorable administration. The President was renominated on the first ballot, the vote standing, Harrison 535 1/6, Blaine 182 5/6, McKinley 182, Reed 4, Robert T. Lincoln 1. Reed is said to have received "the most spontaneous ovation that the convention witnessed."

To Mr. Blaine the result may well have been the greatest mortification of his life. In 1876 he had led on every ballot except the last; in 1880 he had stood second on 35 out of 36 ballots; he had defeated General Grant, who was backed by such experienced and influential politicians as Logan, Conkling and Cameron, and the nominee was his intimate friend; in 1884 he had been nominated; in 1888, though voted for, it was in spite of a clear refusal to become a candidate, and his influence had decided the choice of the convention. But in 1892 he had, in appearance at least, entered the field after again declining to be a candidate and had been decisively beaten on the first ballot.

On the news of Harrison's renomination he promptly issued an appeal to the Republicans to close their ranks and support the ticket, but he had not the magnanimity to congratulate his successful rival. In a few months, however, all ill-feeling passed away. On the Sunday before election he attended the Church of the Covenant, partook of the communion, and walked home with President Harrison. If there had been antagonism between them, it had disappeared, and they were again on the friendliest terms with each other.

The Democratic convention nominated Charles F. Johnson of Waterville by a vote of 585 to 148 for Galen C. Moses of Bath. Mr. Johnson was born in Maine on February 14, 1859. He graduated from Coburn Classical Institute, attended Colby and graduated from Bowdoin in 1879. He worked as a clerk for the Boston and Maine, studied law and was principal of the Machias High School from 1882 to 1886. In the last year he was admitted to the bar. He soon moved to Waterville and became city solicitor from 1887 to 1891 and mayor in 1893 and 1894.

The convention highly praised Cleveland's administration and recommended the Maine delegates-at-large to the Democratic convention to sup-

port his nomination. This appears to have been a partial victory for the anti-Cleveland wing. The plank as originally presented to the committee on resolutions instructed the delegates to support Cleveland but the committee changed the instruction to a recommendation and an attempt in the convention to restore the original phrase was defeated.

The convention condemned the McKinley tariff, and declared that "free raw materials are absolutely necessary for the proper development of the vast natural resources of our State." The members of the convention at last mustered courage to attack prohibition. They condemned its "pretended execution," and demanded the repeal of a law requiring that there be two State constables in every county, asserting that the act was useless and expensive.

The Republicans nominated Henry B. Cleaves of Portland. Mr. Cleaves was born at Bridgton, Maine, on February 6, 1840. He served in the Civil War and in 1868 began the practice of law in Portland. He had been city solicitor, member of the Legislature and Attorney-General.

At the election the Republicans were successful but by a smaller majority than two years before. Mr. Cleaves received 67,900 votes and Mr. Johnson 55,397. Hussey, Prohibitionist, obtained 3,864; Bateman, People's, 2,888; Knowlton, Union Labor, 691 votes; there were twelve scattering. At the national election the Democrats carried the country and the Republicans the State.

In 1894 both parties renominated their candidates of 1892. There was a heavy falling off in the total vote, but a gain by the Republicans. Mr. Cleaves received 69,322 votes, Mr. Johnson 30,455, Hersey (Prohibitionist) obtained 2,721, and Bateman 5,328.

In 1896, Maine again presented a candidate for the Republican nomination for President, not Mr. Blaine, who had died early in 1893, but Thomas B. Reed. Mr. Reed's claims were of the strongest. It was believed that the tariff would be the chief issue of the campaign, and Reed was a protectionist through and through, and had done most valiant and effective service against the Democratic Mills and Wilson bills for reducing the tariff. On the currency question he had an untarnished record of open, undeviating support of "sound money." His daring and resolution in counting a quorum had saved the Republican legislative program in 1890. Yet he was overwhelmingly defeated by the man he himself had beaten for the speakership, McKinley of Ohio. For this there were several reasons. Though Reed was an ardent, able protectionist, McKinley was also a most earnest one, and he was more identified with the policy, in the public mind, than any living statesman. The McKinley bill of 1890 had elected Cleveland in 1892, but now there had come a reaction against the low tariff policy and the father of the McKinley bill had become in the eyes of the masses the advance agent of prosperity. McKinley's temperament was another great factor in his success. He liked to meet the people, he felt one of them, and rejoiced in their support. He was well known personally



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throughout the country, he was fond of making public speeches and readily accepted invitations to do so. He was kindly and never wounded the feelings of those with whom he came in contact. Capable of great firmness in matters of high principle, in minor questions he was made of the willow rather than the oak. Reed was a different type. He was a thorough believer in democratic government but he cared nothing for gusts of popular sentiment. "It is true of Reed as . . . of many another public man that his strength was his weakness. His power as a leader whether of majority or minority enabled him to thwart, and his integrity and the loftiness of his principles compelled him to thwart many dubious schemes and thus he made enemies.

"His impatience with whatever was pretentious and superficial led him into needlessly uttered expressions of contempt that rankled in the minds of the little men at whom they were aimed. He was ambitious but as a politician he was not tactful and would not budge from a position once taken with deliberation, though his inflexibility might, and he was aware of it, imperil his political life. . . . Many of those who admired him and were not his enemies doubted the wisdom of placing at the head of affairs one who had such undoubted confidence in his own judgment or opinion, and who was so capable of making his opinions effective."

Moreover, McKinley had the great advantage of having Mark Hanna for his manager. Reed believed that money was used against him and that many Southern delegates were bought. As the time of the convention approached it became almost certain that McKinley would be the victor. Reed could not hold his own section, Vermont declared for McKinley. Reed's convention manager, Joseph H. Manley, issued a statement about a week before the convention met, that a certain vote in the national committee assured McKinley's nomination on the first ballot. Reed's friends, who intended to fight to the end, were very angry. Reed is said to have sent word to his recreant lieutenant, "Joe, God Almighty hates a quitter." Mr. Manley was accused of selling out. The *Argus*, however, said that it believed that he was guilty only of an error of judgment, that Mr. Manley was not a man who deserted his friends. Reed felt his defeat bitterly, believing that he had been beaten by a lesser man and by unfair means. His first impulse was to withdraw from public life, but the gravity of the issue raised by the Democratic nomination of Mr. Bryan on a free silver platform caused him to resume his harness and take the stump for McKinley, though he neither forgot nor forgave. He wrote to his friend Dalzell: "One can't help a sense of disgust over some things, but there are issues at stake which are too important for anybody's mere personal notions. In fact, politics is mostly pill taking. Be a good man, my dear, and you will be rewarded in heaven—a good place if it materializes for any of us but Dingley."

¹Stanwood, "Review of McCall's Life of Reed," *Am. Hist. Review*, April, 1915, p. 654.

When the Republican convention of Maine met at Bangor on June 13 to nominate a Governor, the result was as much a foregone conclusion as was that of the national convention at St. Louis a fortnight later. A correspondent of the *Argus* wrote on the day before the convention: "To sum the situation up briefly the delegates are here to nominate Powers, eat salmon and enjoy themselves as much as possible." Doubtless the enjoyment and the salmon eating had already begun, and the nomination followed according to schedule. Mr. Powers was chosen standard-bearer by acclamation.

Llewellyn Powers had long been a leader in the party. At the time of his nomination he was fifty-nine years of age. He had served as the first collector of customs at Houlton, county attorney of Aroostook and member of the State Legislature, and had been a Representative in Congress from 1877 to 1879. His maiden speech, on a bill to give a service pension to soldiers of the Mexican War, was unusually able and is said to have defeated the bill. The convention, battling bravely in a cause they must have known to be lost, recommended the nomination of Reed for President and, as befitted his followers, opposed the free coinage of silver unless by international agreement and favored the utmost good faith towards the public creditor, "not for the creditor's sake but for the nation's sake."

Loyal also to the memory of their dead leader, they declared that "The Republicans of Maine are in favor of that Republican policy of protection taught by Lincoln, illustrated by the signal prosperity of the nation for thirty years, and rounded out by the reciprocity of Blaine, a policy adapted to the business of the country, and adjusted from time to time, to changed conditions."

The Democrats likewise nominated a candidate by acclamation, the choice falling on E. B. Winslow of Portland. The convention declared itself in favor of a re-submission of the prohibition amendment, "with a view to the adoption of the Norwegian system of high license with a local option." The convention repudiated the platform its party was to adopt in national convention, declaring by a vote of 193 to 101 that it was opposed to the free coinage of silver unless by international agreement. After the national convention had declared for free silver, Mr. Winslow declined the nomination and a second convention nominated Mr. W. P. Frank of Portland and declared for free silver. The nomination of Bryan and the adoption of a silver platform at St. Louis was fatal to the Democratic party in Maine, although the Bryanites had nominated one of her citizens, Arthur Sewall, of Bath, for Vice-President. Mr. Powers received 82,596 votes and Mr. Frank but 34,350; Ladd, Prohibitionist, received 2,669 votes; Bateman, Populist, 3,292, and Clifford, National (Gold) Democrat, 609. There were 48 scattering votes.

In the Presidential election the Republicans polled 80,461 votes, the Democrats 34,567, the Populists (Bryan and Watson) 2,387, the Gold Democrats 1,866, the Prohibitionists, 1,589.

In 1898 the Cuban problem, long extremely serious, was rendered incapable of a peaceful solution by the sinking of the battleship "Maine." Among the small conservative element in Congress which endeavored to the last to prevent war, Maine was represented. The House passed a resolution directing the President to intervene in Cuba, the vote stood yeas 324, nays 19, one of these nineteen votes was cast by Congressman Boutelle of Maine. The Senate by a vote of 67 to 21 passed a resolution recognizing the *government* of Cuba. One of the nays was cast by Senator Hale. In the House, on the final passage of the resolution, in a modified form indeed, but which nevertheless made war inevitable, Mr. Boutelle was one of six members voting nay.

For the war, Maine furnished one regiment of infantry, four batteries of heavy artillery and a signal corps, amounting in all to 1,717 non-commissioned officers and men. The infantry regiment was encamped at Chickamauga, where it suffered considerably from sickness. It was about to be sent to Porto Rico when peace was declared. The signal corps took part in the Santiago campaign. A number of Maine men enlisted in the navy and the regular army, and the volunteer naval reserve associations of Portland and Bath were mustered into United States service. Governor Powers in his message of 1899 thus describes the raising of Maine's quota:

"The Secretary of War, when the first call for volunteers was issued, assigned as the quota of the State of Maine a Regiment of Infantry and one Battery of Heavy Artillery, and he expressly requested that this call be filled, so far as possible, from the National Guard of the State, as the Government desired men that were somewhat familiar with military drill and tactics. Before the call was issued Adjutant-General John T. Richards and myself had consulted together, and had foreseen that the Guard would probably be the first troops asked for, and had already taken some effective measures to prepare it to respond. An order had been issued directing all commanding officers of companies to report for honorable discharge all soldiers in their several commands having any physical disability which might prevent them from being mustered into the United States service; and another order, requesting and directing that every company be recruited, by new enlistments, to the maximum number allowed under the present military laws of Maine, and that no recruit be accepted unless he had passed the physical examination required by the regulations of the regular army. Also orders for tents, clothing, blankets and for other necessary equipment were placed early. It was fortunate for us that we did this, otherwise, we should have experienced no little difficulty in obtaining many things that were very necessary for the proper equipment and comfort of the men.

"To comply with the request of the Secretary of War to fill the quota from the National Guard as far as possible, both regiments were ordered into camp at Augusta the first of May, and found on their arrival all things prepared and in readiness to receive them. All efforts to get a change in the assignment of quota made by the War Department, so that they would receive both regiments, instead of one larger regiment and a Battery of Heavy Artillery, were unsuccessful. I then determined that, by military usage, it was the right of the 1st Regiment of the Guard to be used to

fill the call for the Regiment of Infantry, as its officers claimed the right and privilege of so doing, and that the Battery of Heavy Artillery should be enlisted from the 2d Regiment of the Guard.

"Notwithstanding the order to bring none but physically sound men into camp, on an examination by the United States surgeons nearly, or quite, one-third of the non-commissioned officers and men in the regiment were rejected. This left a complement of officers with about one-half the requisite number of men. The United States officers would not accept or muster into the service any company until there was a full complement of non-commissioned officers and privates.

"There were great difficulties in obtaining enlistments from the 2d Regiment to fill the companies of the 1st, as a disinclination existed on the part of most of the officers and men of the 2d Regiment to do so, although all were very anxious to go to the front if they could be permitted to have their own organization. Besides, the officers and men believed that there would soon be another call, when they could go as a regiment. Hence, but few enlisted, with the exception of the Bangor Company, under Captain Dennett. Captain Dennett had his company examined, and used it to fill what was lacking in two companies of the 1st Regiment, taking himself a second lieutenancy which happened to be vacant. He was one of the best officers in the Guard. Had been educated at Annapolis. I commissioned him as a first lieutenant before the regiment was mustered out. I should have been glad could I have seen an opportunity to have raised him to the rank of captain.

"At this time, when we sorely needed men, the University of Maine sent us more than forty splendid volunteers, familiar with military tactics and drill, who enlisted as privates. It was a timely and much needed aid. It encouraged others. It was an act that the State should not forget.

"While we were grappling with and overcoming these difficulties, incident to filling the quota by using the National Guard, I was constantly receiving numerous applications, from all parts of the State, from patriotic citizens who desired to raise companies, and who expected to be commissioned in those companies, offering service of themselves, and various numbers of volunteers, and if I had felt at liberty to disregard the instructions from Washington to use the Guard, and to accept these volunteer companies, I could have raised several regiments in a very short time, and at less cost to the State."

A number of the men declared that they could not volunteer unless some assistance were given to their families who were in urgent need. Accordingly, the Governor decided to pay on his own responsibility the same bounty that was given to the non-commissioned officers and privates of the first ten regiments that enlisted in the Civil War.

"About this same time," said the Governor, "there was considerable anxiety in some of the towns and cities along the coast, fearing that they might be attacked by gun-boats or cruisers of the Spanish navy. And some persons were very urgent that an extra session of the Legislature be called. I could not comprehend how an extra session of the Legislature would furnish to them any adequate or additional protection, or I should have called it at once. I was convinced, after a careful examination, that the only real and effective defense for our coast towns was to establish batteries and

mines, and to obtain from the United States, cruisers to sail along the shores, and in conjunction with our delegation in Congress we succeeded in obtaining two cruisers, and having the coast very generally and effectually fortified."

The vote for Governor in 1898 showed a considerable falling off from that of the previous election. The Republicans renominated Governor Powers, the Democrats nominated Samuel Lord of Saco. Mr. Powers received 53,900 votes, Mr. Lord 29,485. There were 2,326 votes for Ladd, Prohibitionist; 649 for Gerry, People's, and 312 for Lermond, National Democrat.

In 1900 the Republicans nominated for Governor John F. Hill of Augusta. Mr. Hill was born in Eliot, Maine, in 1855. He graduated from the Medical School of Maine in 1878. Shortly after he took up his residence in Augusta and became a partner in the publishing house of Vickery and Hill, which did an excellent business in publishing small, inexpensive magazines of wide circulation. Mr. Hill had served in the Maine House in 1889 and 1891 and in the Maine Senate in 1893 and 1895. He was a man of strictly correct life, well dressed, of polished manners and unusually handsome. He was also a skillful political manager. The Democrats renominated Mr. Lord. Mr. Hill was elected, receiving 73,470 votes and Mr. Lord 40,086. Rogers, Prohibitionist, obtained 3,648 votes, Lermond, Socialist, 653, and there were 21 scattering.

A narrative of the political history of Maine might well close with the nineteenth century. New issues have arisen, questions of governmental and social readjustment, which are still being sharply fought, and it is too soon to write their history or that of the men who are leading on either side. Yet for the sake of completeness a few pages may be added to bring, in outline, Maine's centennial history to the verge of her centennial.

In 1902 Governor Hill was renominated and was re-elected by a majority of 25,000 over his Democratic competitor, Samuel W. Gould of Skowhegan.

In 1904 the Republicans nominated William T. Cobb of Rockland. He was opposed for the nomination by Bert M. Fernald of Poland and Charles H. Prescott of Biddeford, but was nominated on the first ballot, the vote standing Cobb 673, Fernald 297, Prescott 291, scattering 7. Mr. Cobb was elected over Cyrus W. Davis of Waterville, the Democratic nominee, by 26,000 majority. Both gentlemen were given the customary renomination in 1906 and Cobb again defeated Davis but by only 8,000 majority. The principal cause of the change was the "Sturgis law" and Governor Cobb's attitude on prohibition. A bill fathered by Senator Sturgis of Cumberland had been passed providing for the appointment of a special commission to enforce the prohibitory law, with authority to appoint deputy commissioners.

*The panic was a ridiculous affair. After mines had been laid in the Penobscot to quiet the people, a cry went up to have them removed lest the Bangor and Boston boats and other vessels be sunk. It is said that the "mines" were only dummies, a sort of submarine Quaker gun laid down to quiet troublesome Congressmen and their frightened constituents.

Governor Cobb in his first address to the Legislature had called for the enforcement of prohibition and he made his actions square with his words.

In 1908 Mr. Fernald, Governor Cobb's chief rival in 1904, was nominated. His principal opponent was William T. Haines of Waterville, who had announced himself as a candidate in 1904, but had withdrawn in the interest of Mr. Cobb. Mr. Fernald had the powerful support of the Rickers, owners of the famous Poland Spring, and of the great Samoset Hotel at Rockland. Mr. Fernald announced himself as the special champion of retrenchment and economy. Mr. Haines was understood to favor the re-submission of the prohibitory amendment on the ground that, in the interest of prohibition itself, the people should have an opportunity to express their opinion on the subject. When the convention met it was known that Fernald would be successful and before a vote was taken Haines rose and said, "Recognizing, as I do, the conditions of this convention, the heat, the hour that has already been taken up by one ballot [for State Auditor] I come forward to move that the Hon. Bert M. Fernald be given a unanimous nomination." The Democrats nominated Obadiah Gardiner, the master of the State Grange, and did their best to win the farmers. The Republicans declared that Gardiner was no farmer, as the tax rolls showed that a house and lot were all the real estate he owned and that Fernald was a near farmer, since he owned a great corn canning factory. Probably Mr. Gardiner's Christian name was a disadvantage, old-fashioned and strange, many thought that a Governor Obadiah would make the State ridiculous. But to jokes about his name Mr. Gardiner made a neat reply. He said in substance: "In a book which I fear my opponents do not read as much as they ought I find that there was once a governor named Obadiah and that he was a *good* governor and I would suggest history often repeats itself." But in this case history did not. Mr. Fernald was elected, leading Gardiner by a little over 7,000 votes.

The circumstances of Governor Fernald's administration gave opportunity for grave charges of extravagance. He had also offended the radical prohibitionists by vetoing a bill which made imprisonment the sole punishment for certain violations of the liquor laws, and the Democrats felt that with care and energy on their part they would win at the next election. The leaders selected for their standard bearer Frederick W. Plaisted of Augusta, a son of Harris M. Plaisted, and a man of pleasing personality. Mr. Plaisted was put in nomination by former candidate C. F. Johnson, who said, "The question is which candidate can get the most votes. That is the question for right and justice, for the party must win next September. The people must look to the Democratic party, for they may look nowhere else." Plaisted was nominated on the first ballot by a vote of 575 to 311 for Gardiner. Mr. Gardiner promptly pledged his full support to the nominee, and took the stump in his behalf. The vote of the preceding election was reversed and Plaisted led Fernald by between eight and nine thousand votes. The Democrats also carried the Legislature which gave them a

United States Senator, as Senator Hale's term expired in March, 1911. The Legislature elected Charles F. Johnson. As if to fill the Democratic cup to overflowing a second Senator was given them. William P. Frye died in the summer of 1911, and Governor Plaisted appointed Obadiah Gardiner to fill the vacancy. The Democratic Legislature submitted a constitutional amendment annulling the prohibitory amendment of 1884, but after a sharp contest it was defeated by a small majority. It is a significant fact that seventeen of the eighteen cities of the State voted against prohibition.

In 1912 the Democrats went into the campaign with the advantage of the split in the Republican ranks which followed the renomination of President Taft. But the Maine Republicans avoided a break as far as the State campaign was concerned, Progressives and Regulars agreeing to work together in September and then fall apart and fight in the presidential election. A law had been passed providing for primary nominations, but the candidates were the same as would have been "slated" under the old system. The Republicans nominated William T. Haines, the leading, unsuccessful candidate of four years before. The Democrats renominated Governor Plaisted. Haines fell just short of a majority but led Plaisted by 3,229 votes. The Republicans also carried the Legislature. In the presidential election the Democrats were successful, Wilson receiving 51,113 votes to 48,495 for Roosevelt and 26,545 for Taft.

The Legislature of 1913 had the duty of electing a Senator to succeed Mr. Gardiner and the choice fell on ex-Governor Burleigh, who had been a Representative in Congress since 1897.

In the gubernatorial election of 1914 the straight Republicans and the Progressives were unable to unite. The Republicans renominated Governor Haines, the Progressives nominated Halbert P. Gardiner of Patten, and the result was that the Democratic candidate, Oakley C. Curtis, of Portland, obtained the prize. In 1916 the political wheel made another revolution, the Progressives came back to the Republican fold and the Republican candidate, Carl F. Milliken, of Island Falls, a young man with Progressive ideas, was nominated and elected. In the presidential election too, Maine once more took her place in the Republican ranks. The following year she was again obliged to choose two United States Senators. Senator Burleigh had died in 1916 and Senator Johnson's term expired in the following March. The amendment to the national Constitution giving the election of Senators to the people was now in force and the people chose Frederick Hale for the long term and ex-Governor Fernald for the unexpired term of Mr. Burleigh. The Democratic nominees were Senator Johnson to succeed himself and Dean (now President) Sills of Bowdoin College. The candidacy of the latter gentleman was a striking instance of the appearance of the scholar in politics. He led his class at Bowdoin, where he is said to have taken a higher rank than did any student before him. He studied at Harvard, taught at Columbia, returned to Bowdoin as Professor of Latin and

remained there as professor and dean until his nomination for Senator. His entrance into politics, however, did not draw him from his academic shades and in May, 1918, he was elected president of the college.

Senator Hale has the unique distinction of being a Senator of the third generation. He is a son of Eugene Hale, who represented Maine in the Senate for thirty years, and a grandson of Zachariah Chandler, the Republican Stalwart who was Senator from Michigan for nearly nineteen years.

Governor Milliken's administration was marked by a special effort to enforce neglected laws. In 1918 he compelled the amusement concessionaires at Old Orchard Beach to cease operation on Sunday and with the consent of his Council he removed Sheriff White of Penobscot for failing to enforce the prohibitory law. The World War greatly added to the Governor's burdens but he assumed them courageously and showed much activity and energy in the execution of his office. In 1918 he received the customary renomination, as did Senator Fernald, whose term expired in March, 1919. The Democrats nominated Bertrand G. McIntire of South Waterford for Governor and Elmer E. Newbert of Augusta for Senator. There was little speaking during the campaign, although Governor Milliken made one important address and Messrs. McIntire and Newbert both took the stump.

The Democrats praised the national administration and called on all citizens to stand by the President and claimed that a Democratic defeat would encourage the Germans, who would regard it as a repudiation of Mr. Wilson. The Republicans replied with the claim that their party had a better war record than the Democrats and declared that there was inefficiency at Washington. The principal contest, however, was fought around Governor Milliken. The Democrats criticised his conduct in the Old Orchard matter and denounced him severely for his interpretation of a law giving pensions to aged, infirm and dependent mothers, and for his alleged efforts to advance the classification of draftees with wives and children. The Republicans answered that in neither case was he a free agent, that in the first he simply followed the law and that in the second he obeyed orders from Washington.

The election resulted in a great victory for the Republicans. They defeated Mr. White, who had been renominated for sheriff of Penobscot county by the Democrats, they secured an overwhelming majority in both Houses of the Legislature, and they re-elected Mr. Fernald by a handsome majority. They also re-elected Governor Milliken but by a majority much less than the one that he had received in 1916. Mr. Milliken, however, can console himself with the thought that he is the first Governor of the State to be re-elected since 1906 and that he has secured his place in the history of Maine as her World War and Centennial Governor.

Chapter XXIII
INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT OF MAINE



READY FOR THE VOYAGE

CHAPTER XXIII

THE INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT OF MAINE

By G. W. STEPHENS

A study of the economic development of the State of Maine gives much corroboration to the dictum of Semple who, in his "Influences of Geographic Environment," says, "All historical problems ought to be studied geographically, and all geographic problems must be studied historically." Few other regions in the development of their industrial life exhibit a more faithful correspondence or definite relationship between the prevalent geographic phenomena and the dominating economic activities. In point of possession of natural resources in materials and power, of natural water courses, climate, scenery, and proximity to important markets, the Pine Tree State is distinctive.

Among the basic industries in Maine engaging the activity and investment of men, manufacturing has been, for many decades, predominant. Its relative importance has shown an uninterrupted gain during the entire period for which statistics are available. From 1849 to 1900 the population of the State increased from 583,169 to 742,371, or 27.3 per cent. During the same period the average number of wage-earners employed in manufactures increased from 28,020 to 79,955, or 18.5 per cent. In 1850 these wage-earners constituted 4.8 per cent. of the entire population; in 1910 their percentage was 10.8. In 1850 the gross value of manufactured products per capita of total population was \$42; in 1909, \$237. In 1900 Maine ranked thirtieth among the States in population; thirty-third in the value of agricultural products, aggregating \$37,113,469; thirty-second in the value of mining products, aggregating \$3,656,134; twenty-first in manufactures, with a total value of products of \$127,361,485. The per capita value (gross) of products in the three industries was as follows: Agriculture, \$53; mining, \$5; manufactures, \$183. But while manufacturing occupies a place of overshadowing and relatively growing importance among the basic industries of the State, it is of interest to note that the proportion which the value of its products represents of the total value of manufactured products in the United States has decreased, as follows: 1850, 2.4 per cent.; 1880, 1.5 per cent.; 1904, 1 per cent.; 1909, 9/10 of 1 per cent.

Paper and Pulp.—In the list of important manufacturing industries of the State today, first place, determined by amount of capital invested and value of products, belongs to that listed by the Federal census as paper and wood pulp. Exceeding by more than one hundred per cent. the size of any other industry, it is and for a score of years has been growing at a rate significant for its rapidity, probably surpassing that of any other im-

portant business in Maine. Whereas, according to census returns, before 1900 it stood no higher than seventh in the order of magnitude of manufacturing industries, in that year it ranked fourth, in 1909 third, and by 1914 had risen to the premier position, which it bids fair to retain indefinitely.

The known facts connected with the beginning of papermaking in the State are few and fragmentary. It is certain that paper was made in this country (Philadelphia) as early as 1690. Tradition has it that in 1731 General Waldo "contracted to build and lease a paper mill on the Presumpscot river, at Falmouth," and that at nearly the same time one Thomas Westbrook constructed a paper mill at Stroudwater, in the same town. Several years previously the General Court of Massachusetts, of which Maine was then a district, had passed an act to encourage the manufacture of paper, as a part of which a patent, running ten years, was granted to a certain Daniel Henchman and associates, for the sole manufacture of paper. Therefore, it is probable that Waldo and Westbrook obtained their right of paper manufacture from Henchman.

There is no evidence that the foregoing efforts yielded any practical results. Indeed not until after the middle of the last century did the industry reach proportions of material economic significance. It is a fact of interest, nevertheless, that according to the Federal census of 1840, papermaking was carried on in Maine, during that census year involving six manufactories, \$20,600 invested capital, and 89 employes. In the census of 1850,—Statistics of the United States,—under the title "Professions, Occupations and Trades," 71 persons in Maine were listed as paper manufacturers. In the census of 1860, much more complete than any theretofore taken, report was made of fourteen papermaking establishments, employing 406 hands and \$519,100 invested capital, with an annual product valued at \$949,675. Ten years after the situation was very slightly changed, and such change was in the nature of a falling off in size of the industry, there being, according to the ninth census of the United States, twelve establishments, with 382 employes and \$399,000 capital, the year's products amounted to \$1,214,607.¹

In 1879 there were in Maine twelve establishments making paper, with 1,067 hands employed, \$1,995,000 capital invested, and products valued at \$2,170,321. At the same time the State ranked seventh in order of importance of the industry. In 1890 the number of establishments making paper and pulp (the latter for the first time listed as a separate industry) was seventeen, they employed 1,568 hands, and \$4,273,825 capital, and their products were valued at \$3,281,051. By 1900 a remarkable growth in the scale of the industry had occurred. There were reported in the census of

¹Values appearing in the reports of the ninth census should be subjected to a discount of one-fifth, on account of the existing premium on gold, which averaged 25.3% for the year June 1, 1869, to May 31, 1870, to make such values properly comparable to those of other census periods.

that year thirty-five establishments, with 4,851 employes and \$17,473,160 capital, with an annual product worth \$13,223,275, the State ranking third in order of size of the industry. In 1909 report was made of forty-five establishments having 8,647 wage-earners, \$65,133,248 capital, and products valued at \$33,950,704. In 1914 the industry was being operated in thirty-eight establishments, gave employment to 10,696 hands, possessed invested capital of \$80,422,988, and an annual product of the value of \$40,179,744.

That Maine has become an important paper-manufacturing State only within the last two decades, is the result chiefly of several fundamental and far-reaching changes that have come about within a comparatively recent time in the process of making this material. Although the making of paper is an art ages old, it has been during a period of hardly more than a century that its manufacture has developed to such a point as to be commercially important. For many hundred years practically the only material used as paper stock was rags; and the prevailing process of reducing them to pulp and pressing and shaping the mass into sheets was that of hand. Near the beginning of the nineteenth century the inventive skill of a Frenchman, named Roberts, brought about a mechanical method of making paper in a continuous web. This process was embodied in the so-called Fourdrinier machine, which has ever since occupied an important place in the industry.

With rags as the chief stock, the cost of paper was high. Recognition of this fact had for a long time constituted a stimulus to discover a partial or complete substitute on the part of those interested in the industry. The use of wood for this purpose had doubtless been considered during the eighteenth century; but it was not until well into the next century, during which time the development of literacy became marked and resulted in greatly increasing the demand for paper, that necessity became the mother of the invention of a feasible substitute for rags as paper stock. "In 1826 some papermakers in Turin, Italy, used the thin bark of the poplar, willow, and other kinds of wood as raw material for papermaking, and in 1833 an Englishman was granted a patent for making paper and pasteboard from wood reduced to a state of paste. Poplar was considered best for this purpose. In 1855 an English patent was granted for improvements in the application of the inner bark of various trees to the manufacture of paper pulp. In 1862 samples of paper made from wood pulp mixed with rags, were exhibited at London, the wood having been rubbed down into pulp against the rough face of a wheel. Five years later, at Paris, a machine invented by a German, Herman Voelter, for grinding wood into pulp, was exhibited, and it was upon a similar machine especially imported, that mechanically ground pulp was first produced in this country in 1867, at Stockbridge, Massachusetts. This first American ground wood pulp was produced at the rate of about one-half ton daily and sold for eight cents per pound. It was pressed into cakes by a hand process and shipped in barrels to the paper mill which used it." Only very gradually were there

eliminated the difficulties inhering in wood as a satisfactory paper stock. Among people having practical interest in the matter, skepticism was common and persistent as to the commercial utility of wood fiber. An English trade paper said, as late as 1874: "Great endeavors have been made to introduce wood pulp as a fiber, but practical papermakers deem it a failure. Two kinds are in general use, mechanically prepared and chemically prepared. The great fault of the first is its weakness—after all it is mere sawdust. The chemically prepared seems a good fiber, but its price, at twenty pounds (one hundred dollars) wet, or thirty-six pounds (one hundred eighty dollars) dry, per ton, is sadly against its use." In an article, "The Coming Fiber," appearing in 1873 in the *Paper Trade Journal*, published in this country, was discussed the question whether fiber should be made from straw or wood, with a disposition to favor the former. An argument against wood, which has since been employed with considerable vigor—the consequent and inevitable destruction of the forests—was mentioned by the writer as then being used by many. Taken by and large, the manufacture of paper from wood pulp on a commercial basis did not become significantly established before the latter part of the decade of the eighties.

With the demonstration of the utility of wood fiber, it became a foregone conclusion that Maine would soon come to rank among the chief papermaking States of the country. This for two principal reasons: her wealth of water power and her forests. Among the several kinds of wood suitable for papermaking spruce has thus far been found to possess altogether the most desirable properties. Among the numerous native woods of Maine, spruce has been one of the chief, it has existed in enormous quantity; and a high percentage of it has been so situated with reference to streams as to make its extraction from the forest and transportation to the mill relatively easy and inexpensive. In the second place, Maine's abundant water power, amounting in potentiality to approximately one million horses, is of especial moment in connection with the paper industry. The economy of transportation of the logs upon the streams is pronounced. No less important is the economy of the use of waste power in the manufacture of pulp and paper, which needs, as manufacturing industries go, a relatively large amount of power in operation of its essential processes.

In the pioneer stage of papermaking in the State, a half-century ago, the few small mills were grouped chiefly on the three principal rivers—at Mechanic Falls on the Androscoggin, Gardiner and Skowhegan on the Kennebec, and Hampden on the Penobscot. Significantly, it is upon these three streams that the majority of the plants of the industry are found today.

It appears that the commercial manufacture of ground wood pulp was begun in 1868 in the basement of a sawmill at Topsham, owned and operated by Charles D. Brown and E. B. Denison. The capacity was about a ton a day, and the product sold for about seven cents a pound. In 1870 these men organized the Androscoggin Pulp Company, "probably the oldest

pulp company in the State." In a few years they had considerably expanded the scope of their operations, coming into ownership or control of plants at Brunswick, Skowhegan, Saccarappa, Paris, Norway, and Great Falls.

It was not before 1888 that large scale operations in the manufacture of pulp could be said to have begun. In that year a plant was begun at Otis Falls, by the Otis Falls Pulp Company, of a size and type theretofore unknown in the State. It embodied the most advanced ideas then known to the business. It developed and employed between four and five thousand horse-power, and turned out between fifty and sixty tons of pulp a day. It was at approximately the same time that the beginnings were made in the development of the water power at Rumford Falls, which is capable of a development making it the largest east of Niagara. It was not until the decade of the nineties, however, that the major part of the development at Rumford Falls, now the chief seat of the papermaking industry in the State, was completed. During the same period a considerable number of large mills were established throughout the State.

Three essential processes are employed in the making of wood pulp: grinding or mechanical, sulphite, and soda. The first-named was the process employed in all the pioneer mills in Maine. The sulphite process, discovered in the decade of the sixties, was first produced commercially in this country in Providence in 1884. It appears that it was first used in Maine by the Eastern Manufacturing Company at South Brewer, which began operations in 1889; quickly followed by the Orono Pulp and Paper Company and the Cushnac Fiber Company, both in 1889; the Lisbon Falls Fiber Company, in 1890; the Howland Falls Pulp Company, in 1891; and in the following years by numerous other plants, important among which were those at Millinocket, Rumford, Lincoln, Madison and Winslow. In the introductory stage of the sulphite process serious difficulty was experienced in providing iron or steel vessels for the cooking or digesting of the fiber, that would be immune to the corrosive action of the acids used. This trouble was finally overcome by lining the inside of these vessels with acid-proof brick, specially prepared for the purpose and embedded in cement.

The soda process is the oldest of the three that are generally employed, being introduced by Hugh Burgess, in England, in 1854, and patented by him in this country the same year. It came into practicable use during the sixties. In this State the first soda pulp mill was that established at Yarmouthville, in 1872. The S. D. Warren plant, at Cumberland Mills, in the city of Westbrook, began the use of the soda process in 1880. Other plants making soda pulp are located in Fairfield, Old Town, and Rumford. The soda process is the least used of the three mentioned. This is largely due to the fact that poplar wood is the only kind, in this State, that is economically adapted to the method.

The importance of the present position of the pulp and paper industry in this State is well shown by certain statistics taken from the Federal census of manufactures in 1914. In that year the amount of invested cap-

ital in manufactures in Maine was \$233,844,434; the capital invested in paper and wood pulp was \$80,442,988. The value of the products of manufacture was \$200,450,118; the value of paper and wood pulp products was \$40,179,744. The number of persons engaged in manufactures was 90,758; the number of persons engaged in the paper and wood pulp industry was 10,696. In the same year 941,204 cords of wood were used in the manufacture of pulp, of which 726,670 were spruce, and 150,461 were poplar. From this and certain other materials there was turned out a total of 336,020 tons of news paper, 176,673 tons of wrapping paper, 27,018 tons of boards, and 118,821 tons of all other paper (book paper, fine paper, tissue paper, etc.). There were as a part of the equipment of the pulp and paper plants 108 paper machines, with a yearly capacity of 684,830 tons, and 88 Fourdrinier machines, with a daily capacity of 2,082 tons. There were 301 pulp grinders, 105 digesters, 65 of which were for the sulphite and 40 for the soda process, having a total yearly capacity of 812,215 tons, divided according to processes as follows: ground, 440,718; sulphite, 269,497; soda, 102,000. In the value of the products of the pulp and paper industry, Maine occupies one of the highest places, being surpassed by New York and Massachusetts only. In 1909, of the total value produced in the United States, New York produced 18.3 per cent.; Massachusetts, 15.0 per cent., and Maine, 12.7 per cent.

Cotton Goods.—Historically considered, the most important industry in Maine has been the manufacture of cotton goods. Since well before the middle of the last century until after the beginning of the present, the amount of capital invested in and the value of the products of the manufacture of the great vegetable staple have not been equalled by those of any other business. It has only been within the last decade and a half that it could not be said that cotton was king among the industries of the State. The extraordinary growth of the pulp and paper industry, and the increase in the financial importance of lumbering, together with a slight falling off in the rate of increase in size of the cotton manufacturing industry in Maine, have at least temporarily compelled the latter to yield the premier position.

As industries go, the manufacture of cotton goods in Maine was begun at an early date. The existence of easily developed water power, together with direct or convenient access to ocean shipping, on the part of certain localities, attracted the attention of manufacturers of cotton goods at a time not long subsequent to the successful application of mechanical processes to the industry. As early as 1809 a mill was established at Brunswick, the next year one at Wilton, and in 1811 another at Gardiner. As reported in the census taken in 1810, there were 811,912 yards of cotton cloth manufactured in Maine within the census year, though it is wholly improbable that this was all factory product. At the same time 780 spindles were reported, but because of the unscientific character of census-taking during that early period, it is not certain that all these were cotton spindles.

In 1820, the year Maine became a State, returns gathered for the Legislature showed that there were nine cotton and woolen factories in operation, but it is probable that the majority of them were woolen mills. The small size of the average mill may be judged by the fact that the total capital reported from the nine concerns was only \$11,000. In the nature of the case, no slight financial risk attached to the launching and development of any such enterprise as that of textile manufacture in what must be regarded, in Maine at the time, as the experimental period. Failure was pronounced upon no small percentage of these ventures. A rather typical case is that of the development at Brunswick of the plant now known as the Cabot mill.

On March 4, 1809, the Brunswick Cotton Manufacturing Company was incorporated. The concern devoted itself to the making of cotton yarn only, selling the same to other mills, to be made into cloth. The mill was a failure and the owners lost all they had invested. The company was reorganized in 1812 under the name of the Maine Cotton and Woolen Factory Company. In 1820 they were operating 1,248 cotton spindles and 240 woolen spindles. About 100 operatives were employed and 100,000 yards of cloth produced annually. The entire plant was destroyed by fire in 1825. In the following years several further changes in ownership and organization were made, the net result of which in most cases was financial loss, if not failure. Each new organization was characterized by a strong faith in the possibilities of the business, as evidenced by the larger scale of operation provided for. It is worthy of note that after nearly fifty years of precarious existence, this undertaking was finally placed on a sound and successful business basis.

In 1826 a cotton mill was established at Saco, which, according to the census of 1830, had 1,200 spindles and 300 looms, and gave employment to about 400 persons. The mill was destroyed by fire in 1830. On its site now stands the mill of the York Manufacturing Company, one of the largest mills in the State.

According to the census of 1840, the six cotton manufactories then in the State gave employment to 1,414 persons, represented an invested capital of \$1,398,000, and had in operation 29,736 spindles. From the same report it appears that the industry in Maine was about one-fourth the size of that in New Hampshire, one-fifth of that in Rhode Island, and one-twelfth of that in Massachusetts.

During the decade of the forties a number of cotton mills were established at various places in the State. At Biddeford, the Laconia Company was organized in 1845, five years before the beginning of the Pepperell Company in the same town. In Lewiston, now the leading cotton manufacturing city in the State, the industry had its beginning in 1846. A factory was started in August the preceding year.

After 1850 the industry was characterized by a marked increase in the scale of operations of the average plant, rather than by a growth in the number of plants. The data of the respective census periods since that time

throws interesting light on the matter. Of establishments listed as those manufacturing cotton goods, the number reported for each census period follows: 1859, 19; 1869, 20; 1879, 24; 1889, 23; 1899, 15; 1909, 16; 1914, 15. Wage earners were reported as follows: 1859, 6,764; 1869, 9,379; 1879, 11,759; 1889, 13,992; 1899, 13,723; 1909, 14,634; 1914, 13,979. The increase in the amount of invested capital is shown as follows: 1859, \$6,018,325; 1869, \$9,789,685; 1879, \$15,292,078; 1889, \$20,850,754; 1899, \$21,087,190; 1909, \$26,387,925; 1914, \$31,289,577. The growth in the volume of manufacturing done is suggested in the figures showing the value of the products, as follows: 1859, \$6,235,823; 1869, \$11,739,781; 1879, \$13,319,363; 1889, \$15,316,909; 1899, \$14,631,086; 1909, \$18,490,642; 1914, \$22,121,711. In 1914 the number of persons engaged in manufacturing in Maine was 90,758; hence, making deductions for proprietors and firm members, approximately 17 per cent. of all employees in manufacturing are in the cotton industry. Likewise, 15 per cent. of capital and 10 per cent. of the value of products of manufacturing in the State belong to the same industry.

Because of the rapid development of cotton manufacture in the South in recent years, misgiving has arisen in the minds of some persons interested in the matter that the accustomed growth and prosperity of the industry in this State may not continue in the future. Not infrequently a shifting of the balance of economic forces affects for good or ill the situation of an industry in a given locality or region. Industries wax or wane in consequence of the possession or lack of economic superiority. In the present case, while it is true that certain advantages obtain through the location of manufacturing establishments in close proximity to the source of raw material, those advantages may not now be regarded as ever likely to fully offset the advantages which have thus far accounted for the remarkable growth the manufacture of cotton has experienced in the region of which Maine is a part. Those advantages, among which are water power, proximity to chief sources of capital and credit, access to a superior type of labor, favorable climate, and the possession of an established market, are of a sort not likely to be easily yielded or overcome. It may be held with confidence that the manufacture of cotton will long continue to be one of the foremost industries in the State.

Woolen Goods.—Numerous aspects of the development of the manufacture of woolen goods have been presented in connection with the consideration of the history of the cotton industry in Maine. Obviously the two industries have had much in common in their process of development.

Since the days of early settlement, the weaving of wool into cloth has been an industry carried on by the people of Maine. But such activity was wholly domestic until after the beginning of the nineteenth century, and predominantly so for several decades thereafter. Among the earliest woolen mills of which any record exists was one in Lisbon which the *Gazetteer of Maine* mentions, as follows: "John Mayall, in 1808, erected a wooden

building for a woolen mill on a power just above the bridge at Lisbon village, on the Sabattus, occupying it until 1822, when it was purchased [and used] by Horace Corbett as a satinet mill until 1850, when he quit the business. In 1860 it was refitted by J. F. Hirst, who manufactured repellents there until 1863, when he removed to Sabattusville and erected a brick mill." It is worthy of mention that as late as 1910 cotton goods were being manufactured in this Lisbon mill.

Establishments for carding wool into rolls had been introduced in Maine a number of years before machine weaving was begun. These carding mills for a long time "flourished in all parts of the State," but most of them have long since passed out of existence. During this same early period fulling mills were widely existent, run either independently or in connection with a carding mill. "Here the homespun cloth was dressed, out of which was to be made the Sunday suit; and as late as 1870 it was not an uncommon sight to see women clad in dressed homespun woollens."

In 1820 Amos and Jeremiah Abbott established a woolen mill at Dexter, since which time woolen manufacture has been the leading industry in the town. A mill was established in Lewiston in 1834, and two years later one commenced operations in Dover. In 1839 there were in Maine twenty-four woolen manufactories, employing 532 men, and with a capital investment of \$316,105. But these figures are in part misleading, as in the census of 1840 (as well as in all the other early censuses) only slight attention was given to the business of the country; very few industrial or financial data were collected; and under the title "Woolen Manufactories" were included carding mills. The latter, indeed, has continued to be the practice, with the exception of 1860, down to 1890.

The two decades after 1840 witnessed a slow but substantial growth of the woolen industry in the State. In 1859 there were twenty-six establishments manufacturing woolen goods. They employed 1,027 hands, possessed an invested capital of \$932,400; and the year's products were valued at \$1,717,007. After the Civil War the industry entered upon a period of pronounced growth which, with few interruptions, has continued down to the present time. In 1869 there were 56 woolen factories in Maine. The employees numbered 2,925; the capital investment was \$4,092,685; and the year's products had a value of \$6,150,620. At that time the State ranked seventh in the order of importance of woolen manufacture. Ten years later the number of establishments reported was 93; the employees numbered 3,095; the capital amounted to \$3,876,028; and the year's products were valued at \$6,686,073. During the next decade the number of establishments decreased to 75, but there was a material increase in the amount of capital invested—\$8,338,864 for 1889. The products had a value of \$7,521,317. In 1899 there were 76 establishments, having 6,280 operatives, \$12,642,058 capital, and products valued at \$11,633,235. By this time the State had risen to fifth position in order of importance of

the industry throughout the country. After 1900 a distinct trend toward consolidation and concentration of the industry has existed throughout the State. In 1909 there were 65 establishments, having 8,754 employees, \$19,064,735 invested capital, and products valued at \$18,490,706. In 1914 there were 57 establishments, with 8,287 operatives, \$20,016,538 capital, and products valued at \$17,531,470.

A comparison of the cotton and woolen manufacturing industries as they have developed in Maine suggests a few facts worthy of statement. As to location throughout the State, it is to be observed that the woolen manufacturing plants are much the more widely scattered, there being indeed few districts far distant from the seat of a woolen mill. The cotton manufacturing plants are concentrated almost wholly in some six or seven centers; and it is somewhat significant that all of these centers are found west of the Kennebec River. The plants devoted to cotton manufacture are located on and derive such water power as they now use from the largest rivers of the State. On the other hand, the woolen mills are in chief part found on the smaller streams. The trend of development of the two lines of manufacture also suggests that, down to the present time, economy of operation requires larger scale plants for the production of cotton than of woolen goods. As previously noted, the trend in the woolen industry during the past two decades has been toward consolidation and enlargement in the size of factories; and it may well be doubted whether, in view of changes going on in the manner and method of production of woolen products, the ultimate situation as to scale or size of average plant in this field of enterprise will not become essentially the same as that which has from a very early day characterized the manufacture of cotton.

Boots and Shoes, Leather.—In high rank among the historically important industries of Maine is the business of making boots and shoes. Closely connected with it and largely conditioning its beginning and early development, has been the leather industry. The two may be advantageously considered together.

A little more than a century ago the tanning of leather was typically a small scale, domestic process, so far at least as the people of Maine were concerned. The hides and skins of home-slaughtered animals were tanned for home use. The work of making footwear was custom, the local shoemaker going his rounds from house to house among the farmers, to work the supply of finished leather into a year's supply of footwear for the family. Such tanneries as existed were very small, and evidently those thus listed in the census reports were such more in name than in fact. This appears from the data for the year 1809, when there were reported to be 200 tanneries, having an annual average of 275 hides and skins tanned, and an average product valued at \$1,156. It seems evident that during the first three decades of the last century the tanning of leather and the making of boots and shoes were predominantly local processes. In 1839 the group

of businesses listed as "Leather, Tanneries, Saddleries, etc.," appeared to be giving employment to 1,284 men, and to represent a capital of \$763,510. In 1859, 152 establishments were listed, employing 765 men, having \$877,475 capital, and a year's products valued at \$2,283,094. During the Civil War, probably for causes associated with it, the tanning business developed considerably. By 1869 it came to rank among the first four or five industries (manufacturing) in the State. In that year there were 200 tanning establishments in Maine, employing 1,020 men; with a capital of \$1,864,949, and products valued at \$4,911,781.

The decade of the seventies seems to mark the high water point of the leather industry in this State. In 1879 there were 117 establishments tanning leather. They employed 1,667 hands, had an invested capital of \$2,970,600, and a year's products valued at \$9,713,317. In that same year Maine ranked fourth among the States in the importance of the business. Thenceforth the industry declined, slowly for a decade, more rapidly thereafter. By 1889 the volume of business had fallen 50 per cent. from the level held ten years before. In 1914 there were ten establishments doing business. They employed 384 hands, possessed a capital of \$2,504,824, and a year's products valued at \$2,419,005.

The prime reason for the tanning industry's becoming strongly established in this State has been the existence here of large supplies of hemlock timber, the bark of which has always been the principal material used for tanning purposes. At no time for many years has Maine or New England been the chief source of supply of the hides and skins used in the process. Ultimately the question of the seat of location of the tanning business has been chiefly the question of the economy of transporting hides to the source of supply of the leading tanning material, as against substantially the reverse course. The development of methods of extracting the tanning elements from the hemlock bark reduced the need of bringing the hides to the region where the bark grows. But the most decisive factor in causing the tanning business in Maine to decline during the last three decades has been the absolute decrease in the supply of hemlock available in the State. During the decades in which the business was most flourishing strong draft was made upon the existing supply; and the rising cost of the supply obtained in the following years finally reached a level which, in conjunction with the other factors mentioned, made, for the majority of plants, the further conduct of the business economically impossible.

The evolution of the boot and shoe manufacturing industry has been characterized by a significantly close relationship, particularly in the early period, with the tanning of leather, as has been suggested in the foregoing. There has been, therefore, real logic in the idea, long and widely held, that Maine ought to be a suitable field for the development of the business of making footwear. To an extent paralleled in few other industries, the growth in the scale of the boot and shoe industry has been steady, even, and continuous, passing out of the stage of household or domestic produc-

tion to that of the small shop or "manufactory" insensibly. The line of distinction between the hand and the machine process of making these products is unusually dim and difficult to locate. Accordingly, the time of the beginning of factories for making shoes in this State cannot with any certainty be indicated.

The first factory of which any record appears to exist was established by A. P. White in New Gloucester, in 1844, in which enterprise 17 persons were employed. Four years later John F. Cobb started a factory at North Auburn, having a plant of about the same size as White's. In 1856 both establishments were moved to Auburn. In 1854 Ara Cushman established a factory at West Minot. "This third shop increased the number of factory shoe workers in the State to 60, and by 1860 the number employed had reached 110." In 1859 there were in Maine 321 establishments listed as "manufacturing" boots and shoes. They represented a total capital of \$509,124, and their year's products were valued at \$1,910,666.

In 1862 the Cushman shop was moved to Auburn, forming with the others already there a nucleus, about which additional factories were built from time to time, until today Auburn stands easily first among the cities of the State in this line of manufacture.

The facts that the boot and shoe industry was one in which, for many years after it became commercially important, there was no determining advantage attaching to large-scale production; that, as manufacturing industries go, it is with relative convenience adapted to buildings of a variety of types, and that, finally, it was an industry that by common observation was seen to be easily developing in numerous communities, go far to account for the rather strikingly large number of plants that came into existence throughout the State between 1860 and 1890. Making allowance for certain discrepancies in the census data for the decennial periods in the time considered, chief of which was the failure to distinguish as is now done between "factory" and smaller-scale production, there is nevertheless some significance in the fact that in 1869 there were 393 establishments reported as making boots and shoes, and that in the year 1879 there were 203 such establishments. During the same general interval numerous towns had unsatisfactory experiences with a type of person or firm commonly known as the "tramp shoe manufacturer." The belief widely held in the easy commercial practicability of the boot and shoe business led to frequent cases of exploitation of this optimistic spirit, by unscrupulous promoters or organizers in that field of business. The practice was common for a town, through voluntary subscription on the part of its citizens, to provide factory buildings gratuitously for a given new concern, and to provide for its exemption from local taxation for a period of years, as well as to show it other favors; followed by the firm's remaining in the town and conducting the boot and shoe manufacturing business only long enough to enable it to procure the special benefits accruing to it in the early years, and then dropping out, perhaps to repeat the cycle elsewhere.

Since 1889 the industry in Maine has been showing a very steady, though not until within the past decade a rapid, growth. In 1889, 53 factories were reported engaged in the making of boots and shoes. There were 6,597 employees; the invested capital amounted to \$4,804,946; and the value of the year's products was \$10,335,342. Ten years later 48 establishments were reported; having 6,432 employees; a capital of \$5,148,278, and products valued at \$12,295,847. At that time Maine had a rank of fourth in the order of importance of the industry. In 1909 there were 55 establishments, with 7,195 employees; \$7,284,376 capital; and products valued at \$15,508,771. Evidently the industry did not keep proportionate pace throughout the decade with that maintained by it in certain other commonwealths, as in 1909 Maine's position in the scale of importance was ninth. During the half-decade following 1909 the business experienced, on the whole, a substantial growth, though the number of establishments decreased. In 1914 there were 50 plants; 9,371 employees; \$8,042,710 capital; and a yearly product valued at \$22,836,073. At present no good reason appears why the industry should not continue its solid and substantial growth.

Canning, Preserving and Fishing.—In a consideration of the history of the packing or canning and preserving industry in the State, two difficulties, one relating to order and method of presentation, the other concerning the accuracy of part of the data, present themselves. The packing industry as it has thus far developed in Maine deals chiefly with two rather widely different kinds of commodities—fish, and vegetables and fruits. While they have many essential points in common, they possess perhaps no fewer in the way of difference. Evidently this possession of attributes, both common and different, is at least partly responsible for the fact that the collection and presentation of statistical data concerning them, in the Federal census publications (until lately) make it impossible to segregate items concerning the one from those relating to the other. It will be convenient to consider the fish-packing industry in connection with the larger subject of fisheries.

From the time of discovery and exploration of the Maine coast it has been considered a region of superior fishing resources. The early navigators are reputed to have been struck by the size and abundance of the cod and other fish they found in the coastal waters.

"From 1765 Maine employed in the cod fisheries 60 vessels annually, amounting to 1,000 tons, and manned by 230 seamen; and exported annually to Europe and the West Indies, about 12,000 quintals, of a value of \$48,000. During the Revolutionary War this branch of trade was nearly cut off, but from 1786 to 1790 about 30 vessels were annually employed, amounting to 300 tons, and manned by 120 seamen. The exports were, to Europe, 1,000 quintals, valued at \$3 per quintal; and to the West Indies, 3,500 quintals, at \$2, a total value of \$10,000.

"From 1820 to 1826, inclusive, the total fishing tonnage of the United

States averaged 63,987 tons per annum, while that of Maine averaged 12,326 tons, being $19\frac{1}{4}$ per cent., or nearly one-fifth of the whole. It was estimated that this Maine fleet gave employment to 2,639 fishermen, and that the foreign export of fish from Maine, based on partial returns, amounted to \$470,987 annually, and the export of fish and oil coastwise, from the Passamaquoddy district alone, was \$90,000."

During the course of the last century the fishing industry of Maine has undergone numerous and important changes. Cod fishing on the Grand Banks, in which Maine fishermen had been greatly interested and in connection with which it was said that nearly every town along the coast had one or more "Bankers" to its credit, began to decline about 1870, due, it is commonly held, "to the withdrawal of the Federal bounty in 1868, the expense and uncertainty of the ventures, and the heavy competition of the Canadian fisheries, which were aided and encouraged by the Dominion government to the extent of \$160,000 annually." For the last thirty years bank fishing has been almost entirely neglected by Maine fishermen.

Today it is the herring industry that chiefly engages the effort and investment of those interested in Maine fisheries. These small fish, the chief habitat of which is the coastal waters near Eastport, are the "raw material" for the herring, or, as it is more commonly but less strictly called, the sardine pack. Lobster fishing also has developed very considerably within the last three decades. This increase is chiefly due to the use of power boats, organization among the fishermen by which the methods and practice of selling the fish are systematically unified, and better legal methods to protect the small lobsters. Signs appearing in recent years, pointing to the marked diminution of the lobster supply and the prospect of its soon becoming practically extinct, have led to the establishment, within the State, of scientific means of its conservation and development.

According to the statistics of the United States Bureau of Fisheries, in 1905 the fishing industry in Maine represented an investment of \$8,972,049. The product of the year weighed 124,723,786 pounds, and was valued at \$2,386,406. Since that time it has been more than holding its own, and today it bears every appearance of vigor. There is no reason why it should not in the future, as in the past, constitute one of the solid bases of the economic prosperity and progress of our commonwealth.

In the packing of fish, with respect to one well-known kind, the sardine, Maine has come to occupy a distinctive place. In 1909 the value of the sardine pack in the State was \$4,609,224. California was the only other State in which the industry was considered as having sufficient importance to justify mention; and the industry in the Pacific Coast State is so inconsiderable in size that it may be said with substantial accuracy to be a Maine industry exclusively. The following, from a United States report on the Census of Manufactures for 1905, is suggestive:

"Next in importance to the salmon canning of Alaska and the Columbia River comes the sardine packing in the State of Maine. The idea of

packing small fishes in oil under the name of sardines, originated in France as early as 1850, when the annual pack was only 3,000,000 cans, but the business increased about 300 per cent. in the following decade, and since that time it has developed to very large proportions. . . . In 1865, Mr. George Burnham, of the firm of Burnham & Morrill, Portland, Maine, conceived the idea of using the small herring as a substitute for sardines. It was well known that myriads of small herring were annually caught near Eastport. These were too small for pickling or smoking, and he thought they might be used with profit as a substitute, and if properly prepared, they would be equally good.

"He visited France and studied the question on the scene of actual operations, and became familiar with the details of French canneries. In 1867 he went to Eastport, secured a plant and commenced to work out the problem. Owing to the dampness of the climate, he found great difficulty in drying the fish, and besides, there was a flavor of herring oil which he could not succeed in destroying. But he had done well enough to call the attention of others to the matter, who, after several years, in 1875, made a successful start in the business which has since continued to expand until, in 1905, it took seventh rank among the manufacturing industries of the State."

Among the vegetables having a place in the canning industry of Maine—sweet corn, beans, squash, pumpkin, apples, tomatoes, and blueberries—corn is easily first in importance. Besides it, blueberries are the only product packed in quantity sufficient to be commercially significant.

The canning industry in the State had practically its entire growth since the Civil War, as indeed is true of the business elsewhere throughout the country. Such methods of canning as existed prior to that time were crude and unsatisfactory.

Experiments in the canning of corn were begun about the year 1840 by Isaac Winslow, living near Portland. He had previously been engaged in the whaling business, and in that connection had had occasion to visit France several times. There, through the purchase of supplies, he had learned of the process of preserving food by canning; and the idea occurred to him of preserving green vegetables by hermetically sealing them in cans. In 1842 he attempted a process of cooking and preserving corn "on the cob," but the bulk of the resulting product forced him to seek another method. A fork was devised for pushing or pulling the kernels off the cob, but undue waste resulted. Next, a knife was used for removing the kernels and proved to be reasonably satisfactory. A common household wash boiler was the utensil used for making the first experiments in cooking.

The results of the experiments in cutting, packing, cooking and sealing, were the development of a process that gradually became a demonstrated success. In 1852 Isaac Winslow's brother, Nathan, took up the business and, with his nephew, John Winslow Jones, expanded it. In 1861 Jones assumed entire control of the business, and for many years was the largest packer in the State, selling the product under the title, "Winslow's Patent Hermetically Sealed Sweet Corn." Besides his own large pack, he handled

a large product bought from other packers. Mr. Jones continued in business until after 1880.

Improved processes, many of which originated in Maine, were being discovered and applied as the industry developed. Among these were specialized cookers, automatic can fillers, steel soldering irons, segment solder, and power machines for cutting the corn from the cob. Many spirited legal battles were fought, involving the right to the use of a number of such patented processes or devices.

The corn-canning industry has become widely established throughout the southern part of the State. In 1899 there were 68 packing plants, with a total pack of 22,100,000 cans, valued at \$1,519,374. In 1914 there were 76 establishments, employing 1,272 hands. The capital invested was \$1,949,623; and the value of the year's pack was \$2,419,005. It is an accepted fact that the quality of Maine corn is superior to that of any other State. Data from the thirteenth census is suggestive in this connection: Whereas Maine ranked fourth among the States in quantity of corn packed, in the value of its product—\$1,320,223—it was exceeded by Illinois alone.

The canning of blueberries is an industry narrowly localized, a small part of Washington county being the only region in which it is operated. Not especially important commercially (its annual pack probably does not average over \$125,000 in value), it is nevertheless worthy of mention because Maine stands easily first in the value of its products.

Shipbuilding.—A pursuit which was long regarded as belonging peculiarly to Maine is shipbuilding. From the days of earliest settlement this business has had a substantial, at times predominant, place in the industrial life of the region. For many decades during the last century this State was the chief builder of merchant sailing vessels, her shipyards turning out the most and the largest of this class in the United States. A fact worthy of historical note is that, strictly, shipbuilding in the thirteen colonies had its beginning in Maine. It seems sentimentally fitting that in the State which throughout the greater part of our nation's history has had premier position in this highly important industry, ship construction should have begun, even though such initial construction was confined to a single vessel and a long interval elapsed before the activity was resumed. In 1607, thirteen years before the landing of the Pilgrims at Plymouth, there was built by the Popham colony, at its settlement near the mouth of the Sagadahoc, now the Kennebec, a thirty-ton pinnace, from lumber sawed from the trees along the bank of the river.

That shipbuilding would become an industry of prime importance in Maine was assured because of the existence of several determining factors. Chief among these was the possession of a vast supply of superior ship timber, which was readily available. White oak, white pine, beech, birch, rock-maple, and hackmatack were to be had almost everywhere in convenient proximity to the places along the coast adapted to shipbuilding. No

other State equalled Maine in this regard. The industrial situation commonly obtaining in the coast districts made available to shipbuilders a supply of efficient and relatively inexpensive labor. The industrial elements of the population of these districts characteristically devoted themselves to a diversity of occupations, among which were farming, fishing, lumbering, and boatbuilding. The average man could turn with almost equal facility and ability from one to any other of these industries; and what he was engaged in at any given time was likely to be determined chiefly by the season of the year or by the degree of activity or prosperity a given occupation showed. Periods of necessary unemployment were brief. Most of this population was of native stock, and was attached by ties of sentiment, habit and property to a given locality. It followed that the shipbuilder, himself usually a native also, had normally at his disposal labor of a quality and at a cost unavailable to competitors in other regions.

Mention has already been made of the importance of fishing in the industrial development of Maine. The proximity of the excellent fisheries, giving to the Maine fishermen a differential advantage not unimportant, constituted a pronounced stimulus to the building of vessels.

The substantial beginning of shipbuilding as an industry in Maine could hardly have occurred until after the middle of the eighteenth century. Ships were built at Portland as early as 1728. By 1745 sloops and small schooners for the coasting trade were being turned off the ways at Bath. Following the Revolutionary War a number of towns along the coast gave considerable attention to the industry. The close of the War of 1812 found ship construction active and rapidly developing. In 1820, the year of Maine's entrance into the Union, 14,248 tons of shipping were built within its borders. Five years later the tonnage constructed was 34,558. Moses Greenleaf, in "The Survey of Maine," 1829, estimated the value of vessels constructed the preceding year to have been \$1,037,000. This was exceeded in amount by that of cloth only—\$1,528,000—and followed by cordage as a poor third, with a value of \$312,800.

It was during these years that an interesting class of shipbuilding and owning families came into being, whose business enterprise and family pride were largely responsible for the fortune which American shipping came to enjoy. Starting in a modest way, with few and small vessels, with efficient and resourceful young men in charge, prudent but progressive in the development of their enterprise, they increased their fleet with larger and finer types of ships as their resources expanded. Keeping a given ship only during the best part of its life, fifteen or twenty years, then selling it perhaps to a German or an Italian buyer, and re-investing its proceeds in a new and better vessel, these Maine shipping families, fathers and sons, generation after generation, made of themselves competitors of a power and ability few could equal and none excel. Their sails were spread on every sea; their clipper ships were found in every leading port of the world. It was they chiefly who gave to American commerce of those years the peculiar

distinction it came to possess. They won for themselves high and enduring place in the annals of world shipping.

In 1839 the ship tonnage constructed in the United States totalled 118,309, of which 38,936 belonged to Maine, no other State comparing with it in amount. Of the 181 vessels built in Maine in that year, 50 were listed as ships, 56 as brigs, and 75 as schooners. Of the total Maine tonnage of that year, nearly one-third, or 12,173, was constructed at Waldoboro. The capacity of many of the larger vessels was over 700 tons.

The sixteen years between 1841 and 1857 witnessed an especially marked development of the shipping industry in the State. In 1850 the direct financial and industrial interests of probably 200,000 people living in the more than fifty coast towns between Kennebunkport and Machias centered in this business; and its fundamental economic significance was exceeded by that of no other industry the Commonwealth then possessed. All types of craft, from those devoted chiefly to local fishing, through those found in the carrying trade with Europe, South America, and Asia, were being turned out in large numbers from Maine yards. It was the heyday of the industry.

The panic of 1857, one of the most severe and widespread that has ever come to the United States, was no less disastrous to the ocean shipping interests than to those in other fields of activity throughout the country. The shipbuilding industry in Maine was very injuriously affected. Financial ruin overtook a large number of individuals and firms engaged in the business, and the towns in which it had grown to be the principal pursuit became commercially lifeless. The effects of the panic continued until after the beginning of the Civil War. Most of the circumstances of that great conflict operated, during its continuance, to prevent the revivification of the shipbuilding industry.

The period following the Civil War has been characterized chiefly by marked fluctuations in the magnitude and, on the whole, by a substantial decline in the importance of the industry in Maine. Selected data relating to the tonnage output of the business are pertinent in this connection. In 1872 the wooden tonnage constructed was 40,826; the next year it amounted to 89,817, an increase of 119 per cent. In 1880, 35,847 tons were launched; two years later the output was 75,085. In 1890 the new tonnage totalled 74,467; in 1894 it amounted to only 18,693, and the following year was even less. In 1900, 59,829 tons of shipping were turned off. Financial statistics relating to the period have significance. In 1859 the products of the industry in Maine were valued at \$1,137,814; in 1869, at \$2,365,745; in 1879, at \$2,909,946; in 1889, at \$2,818,565; in 1904, at \$3,038,016; in 1909, at \$3,062,508; and in 1914, at \$1,192,866. During this period a concentration in the location of shipbuilding plants has taken place; and for a number of decades, until within the last two or three years, much the greatest part of the tonnage was built in yards at Bath (easily first in importance), Rockland, Camden, Boothbay, South Portland, Phippsburg,

Waldoboro, Thomaston, Milbridge, and Machias. Since 1890 Bath has also been distinguished through the possession of the only steel shipbuilding plant in the State, a plant of considerable size and importance.

The essential situation in the shipbuilding industry in Maine since the Civil War is not likely to be adequately suggested by the bare statistical data above set forth. Its real meaning is better indicated in the fact that the population of over fifty coast towns, in which shipbuilding was for many years the predominant pursuit, has declined during the last four or five decades. The population of the six leading shipbuilding counties—Hancock, Knox, Lincoln, Sagadahoc, Waldo, and Washington—was smaller in 1910 than in 1870. Until the recent revival of shipbuilding in a considerable number of these coast towns, consequent upon the conditions of the present war, the existence of the shipbuilding industry only as a memory was unmistakably attested by the sight of rotting ways in abandoned yards in nearly all of these communities.

For the great change in the importance and character of the industry in the course of its history in the State, no one cause has been responsible. Mention has been made of the influence of the panic of 1857 and of the Civil War. At about the same time other factors injurious in character became operative. Steam power was becoming widely used in ocean shipping; and the British tramp steamer in particular was pushing its way into a leading place in American foreign commerce. The coastwise trade, restricted by law to American bottoms, passed increasingly into the control of the American steamship interests. In the decade of the seventies, certain changes in the laws, both Federal and State, relating to shipping, resulted unfortunately to the shipbuilding industry of Maine. Tonnage taxes of appreciable burden were imposed. A Federal statute was enacted requiring the masters of American ships to pay a seaman, in the event of his discharge while in a foreign port, three months' advance pay. Pilotage fees were established, and were required to be paid by all sailing vessels entering coast harbors. The Maine State property tax, as it operated, commonly resulted in the imposition of a tax of as much as $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. upon the taxable value of vessels. American consular charges, in foreign ports, were the subject of much complaint on the part of shipping men. Steel became practicable as the chief material for ship construction. Wood suitable for ship material was becoming scarce and increasing in value. The draft upon Maine's forests by timber-using interests had been so strong as to make it necessary, by 1880, for Maine shipbuilders to draw upon other regions for the greater part of their needed timber. In the coastwise trade the use of steam tugs developed for drawing barges. No longer was there the large number of vessels used in the fisheries. The policy of ship subsidies, becoming commonly established by leading foreign nations, manifested itself in a way detrimental to American shipping interests.

Such have been among the difficulties with which, varying in time and importance, the shipbuilding industry in Maine has been obliged to contend.

These difficulties have not been slight. That they have not been insuperable has been due largely to the superior enterprise of Maine builders and to the skill and efficiency of the laborers. As the years have passed, most of the towns in which the industry has declined or disappeared have undergone a degree of adjustment to the changed situation. Many men formerly engaged in the business as employers or workers have shifted to other callings, largely in other sections of the country. In some measure new types of manufacture have developed. The summer tourist "business" has become established very generally among the coast towns during the last several decades, and is proving no mean successor, in many cases, to shipbuilding as a basic source of the economic well-being of the community.

At the present time of wide revival of construction of shipping in Maine, as well as elsewhere, it is interesting to consider the question of its permanency. Without entering into lengthy inquiry or venturing upon a positive forecast respecting the matter, it may perhaps be suggested that the differential advantages originally giving this State its premier position in the industry are gone forever; that wood as shipbuilding material is, on the whole, less satisfactory than steel; and, not least in importance, that the superior organization, particularly the spirit of the personnel of the old-time Maine shipbuilding plant, is no more.

In what has been presented thus far in the present chapter, an attempt has been made to set forth, within the space limits available, the salient facts associated with the industrial development of the State, insofar as that development has been identical with or in consequence of the historical evolution of the several major industries treated. It may well be held that in the growth of these industries, together with that of others of the same essential kind, e. g., lumbering and transportation, considered elsewhere in the present work, lies the chief content of the story of Maine's material progress. Yet, it would be supererogatory to state that in addition to these prime pursuits there are others, an indefinite number, some temporarily of moment and then declining, others of long duration but at no time of considerable magnitude, all of which have been living forces in the unfolding of the fundamental economic life of the Commonwealth.

Brickmaking.—First among this indefinite class of industries is one which as a world industry is ages old and which in Maine, as nearly everywhere in modern times, is probably contemporaneous with white settlement,—the making of brick. The State is well blessed in the possession, widely throughout its extent, of an excellent quality of brick-making clay. The brick and tile made from it are characterized by durability and by a deep and lasting red color, making it the peer of building clay anywhere. These attributes became evident at a very early day, as just stated, and it appears that brick was made for shipment before the middle of the eighteenth century. "The early custom was frequently to ship brick and lumber together, the brick being used as ballast for the cargo. Later, when Maine

began shipping hay to Massachusetts and barrels to the fishing ports, brick was found to be a most profitable accompaniment to the lighter articles of freight. Boston became its chief market and promoter of Maine brick yards, somewhere in the years between 1760 and 1770." The clay in the vicinity of Boston was of a low grade and lay beneath the surface so that, with the crude machinery available at the time, it was not profitable to use it. Brick could be made in Maine at not to exceed \$2 per thousand, and the cost of shipping to Boston was not more than \$1.50 per thousand.

The most important yards in Revolutionary War time and after were located "on the Sheepscot and Damariscotta rivers, at Portland, at Bowdoinham and Hallowell on the Kennebec, and at Bangor and Brewer on the Penobscot rivers." It was estimated that in 1800 there were 35 brickyards in Maine, with an output of 4,500,000 bricks, of which 4,000,000 were shipped to Boston.

By 1835 making brick in part by machinery became practicable, and considerable impetus was given the industry in consequence. The period 1830-50 was one of rapid growth of population in the State, and one of the consequences was the marked expansion of the brickmaking industry. One estimate places the average annual output of brick, 1850-55, at 50,000,000. At that time approximately 500 men were employed for a season of five months, besides those necessary to the cutting and hauling of 25,000 cords of wood used in the kilns. Among the places to which brick was shipped outside the State were Boston, New Bedford, Provincetown, and Providence. Trade with Newfoundland began at about this time, the general result of which, on account of the long-time credit given, was not infrequently disastrous to Maine brickmakers.

The export business in Maine brick reached its height in the early fifties. Shortly after that time the extension of railroads widely throughout Massachusetts made available to Boston users brick produced nearby. The Civil War also checked the growth of the business. But with the restoration of normal conditions after 1865 the industry experienced renewed vigor. The demands of the building trades increased within the State. Substantial draft came from outside, and in 1870 probably 80,000,000 bricks were made, of which 50,000,000 were shipped beyond the State's borders. A characteristic of the industry becoming prominent at about that time, was the practice of large manufacturing concerns of establishing their own brick manufactories, which practice still commonly holds.

The decade of the eighties was on the whole a prosperous time for the industry. In 1885 there were 96 brickyards in operation in the State, in which 93,000,000 bricks were produced. In 1889 the value of the brick produced was \$511,760; in 1889 (of brick and tile), \$439,975; in 1909, \$390,742; and in 1914 was \$2,626,106. During the last decades the number of plants has been decreasing, as follows: 1899, 118; 1899, 71; 1909, 49; 1914, 37. It would appear that, in general, the condition of the industry during this time has not been especially prosperous. It is probable that

the industry in the State has finally adjusted itself to the average needs of present-day business, and that henceforth it will continue, on the present reduced scale, a sound and vigorous enterprise.

Lime.—The manufacture of lime is an industry of long existence in Maine. The stone from which it comes is found widely scattered over the State, but thus far Knox and Waldo counties are the only districts in which the business has been important.

The beginning of the industry in Maine occurred about 1733. "Samuel Waldo, of Boston, having by purchase or inheritance from his father, obtained a title in the lands of the St. George and Medomac rivers: having made experiments upon the limestone found near the river at what is now called the prison quarry, and finding it good, he caused a new lime kiln to be erected, and lime burnt in considerable quantities for the Boston markets." Greenleaf states in his "Survey of Maine," 1829, that "the principal exports from the ports comprising the district of Waldoboro are lumber and lime—we have no account nor estimate of their quantity." By 1835 the annual production of lime in the State amounted to nearly three-quarters of a million casks, "Thomaston, then including Rockland, furnishing 400,000 casks; Lincolnville, 100,000; Camden, 70,000, about equally divided between Camden village and Goose River village, now Rockport; Hope, 5,000, and the rest from Warren." At that time practically all the lime was transported to different markets in craft owned and manned by residents of these communities. "There were constantly employed in carrying lime and bringing wood, at least one hundred sail of vessels."

In the following years the business developed steadily. In 1849 there were reported 51 establishments, employing 396 hands. New and more efficient methods of extracting the rock and burning the lime came into use from time to time. The power drill superseded the laborious hand process. Hauling the rock up an incline and to the kilns, with oxen or horses as the motive power, was succeeded by electrically operated cable ways for hoisting, and standard gauge railroads for hauling. To a large extent coal has taken the place of wood for burning; and the types of kilns have been appreciably improved.

The business has undergone rather wide fluctuations in the amount and value of its products. Immediately dependent as it is upon the building trades, any material change in the condition of the latter makes itself immediately and strongly felt in the former. Competition in the industry has always been keen, and slight changes in the cost of any of the materials or processes connected with the business of a given plant have frequently determined its success or failure. A strong point of advantage to the Maine lime producers has been the concededly superior quality of their product. In the large Atlantic coast markets it won a reputation for merit that gave it sales at top price.

In 1869 there were 41 plants in the State. They represented a capital investment of \$1,058,000, and the value of their year's products was

\$1,741,553. Ten years later the number of establishments had fallen to 28, and the value of their product was \$599,695. At that time Maine ranked second to New York in the value of its lime. The year 1890 was characterized by the consolidation of most of the plants in the Rockland-Rockport district. This combination effected a number of economies in the extractive, manufacturing, shipping, and selling processes, theretofore impossible. It also stabilized and strengthened the credit of the business. It enabled the concern to meet more satisfactorily the demands peculiar to the great Atlantic coast markets.

In the decade 1890-99, the average annual value of Maine lime was \$1,067,138, constituting about seven per cent. of the product throughout the country. In the census year 1910 there were 12 establishments in the business. These had 526 employes, and the year's product had a value of \$1,215,362. Since that time the industry has experienced an appreciable decline, as indicated in the conditions existing in 1914. In that year five establishments were in operation, employing 399 hands, and having a product valued at \$923,032. Competition in the business has become increasingly keen; substitutes for lime are finding favor; the use of steel in building construction has been rapidly growing. Of special importance in the Rockland district is the fact that the necessity of quarrying the rock at ever-increasing depth has added to the cost of extraction. The situation in the industry today is not satisfactory, and the future is not big with promise.

Ice.—A business which for many years was distinctive of Maine is that of storing and shipping ice. The character of Maine winters makes the harvest of ice altogether the most certain among the numerous crops developed in this region.

The industry in Maine appears to have had its beginning in a small, desultory way. As an article for shipment, ice was first "produced" in the early part of last century. Vessels happening to be in Maine river waters during the winter were in some cases loaded with ice for the port somewhere south to which they were going. "The first authentic account of ice being shipped from Maine as an article of merchandise, was previous to 1826, on board the brig *Orion*, of Gardiner. This vessel came up the Kennebec late in the fall. She was frozen in near Dearborn's wharf, Pittston, opposite Gardiner village. This vessel was loaded with floating ice during the spring, sailing for Baltimore at the opening of navigation. On arrival this cargo was sold for seven hundred dollars." In 1826 a venture was made by Rufus K. Page, who erected a building of fifteen hundred tons' capacity on the Kennebec in the town of Richmond. During the following summer the ice was shipped to a number of points on the South Atlantic coast and to the West Indies. The attempt proved unprofitable and the business was abandoned. In 1831 a Boston company stored ice at two places on the Kennebec. The crop in the vicinity of Boston largely failing in 1848, 10,000 tons were stored along the Kennebec that winter.

The year 1860 marked the beginning of a large and systematic business in ice. Mr. James L. Cheesman, a Hudson river ice dealer, became interested in the Maine business at that time, and he quickly developed into the chief figure in the industry in this State. Inside of five years he expanded his business to a capacity of 40,000 tons. He introduced a number of superior methods and devices, such as steam for hoisting power, endless chains, plows, and tools. Much of his ice was sold to the Federal Government during the Civil War, and his business was very remunerative.

During the decade of the seventies the business on the Kennebec and Penobscot rivers became characterized by large companies entering the field. Among these companies were the Consolidated Ice Company, controlling the wholesale and retail business of New York City; the Knickerbocker Ice Company of Philadelphia; Charles Russell & Company of Boston; the Great Falls and Independent Ice companies of Washington, and the Cochran & Oler Company of Baltimore. Several of these companies maintained large fleets of vessels, used in the transportation of the ice from its place of storage on the Kennebec or Penobscot, to New York, Baltimore or Philadelphia. Besides these large outside companies there were a number of companies organized within the State, which did a large business. By 1880 the industry reached a very large size. The Maine harvest that year was 1,426,800 tons. During the next twenty years the cut in but two cases fell below 1,000,000 tons, and in 1890 it amounted to over 3,000,000.

In 1899 the American Ice Company was organized, bringing under one head practically all the business in New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore and Washington. The next year the company, then commonly known as the "Ice Trust," raised the charge for ice per 100 pounds from 30 cents, which had long been its price, to 60 cents in New York City. Strong popular indignation was evoked in consequence. The company was forced into litigation; its stock, largely fictitious, shrunk in value; and it was finally compelled to reorganize.

In the meantime the company had materially increased the capacity of its plants on the Hudson River; and by 1902 it was able to obtain nearly all its needed supply from that stream, at a smaller cost than that involved in the Maine business. In 1901 the syndicate cut no ice in Maine; and the next year stored not over one-third its normal amount.

A factor operating to hasten the shrinking of the export ice business in Maine has been the development of the artificial ice industry. Artificial ice was manufactured in the United States as early as 1866, but the business did not attain much importance or magnitude until the latter part of the eighties. Since that time it has developed rapidly, ice being manufactured in 1909 in forty-one States and the District of Columbia. It has materially altered the character of the ice business. Its growth in conjunction with the changed policy of the "Ice Trust," mentioned above, has

been largely responsible for causing what amounts to the complete disappearance of the export ice business in this State. There are now no storage houses on the Penobscot river; and those on the Kennebec are no longer used. At present there is remote prospect that resumption of the industry will occur.



Chapter XXIV
LUMBERING IN MAINE

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By FANNIE HARDY ECKSTORM

In November, 1621, after the little *Fortune* came to Plymouth, Governor Bradford records that she "was dispatched speedily, laden with good clapboard as full as she could stowe." These were cloven boards, rifted out with wedge and maul for lack of saw-mills. Thus clapboard cleaving was the first American commercial industry, and the voyage of the *Fortune* was the beginning of the American lumber trade.

Clapboard and pipe-staves, or hogshead staves, were home industries of importance. In 1634 Edward Trelawney writes his brother: "They sell here *Clapboard* for 28 $\frac{1}{2}$ starling per & great Inquissition made after them." To meet this demand, methods of manufacture improved. This same year, John Winter, at Saco, was invoiced "a whip and two thwart saws, a file and a wrest." The whip-saw, set in a frame, was for sawing boards over a saw-pit; the thwart-saw was a cross-cut for logs, and the wrest was a saw-set to adjust the teeth. Already lumbering had advanced from a home industry to a business. And this same year (1634) Gorges and Mason send out two saw-mills, one to be set up in Berwick, the other in York. Thus the first two saw-mills in New England, as Francis Small and others deposed fifty years later, were both built in Maine, the mother of the lumber industry all over the United States.

The business grew rapidly. York deeds and wills are full of references to early mills and give a good idea of their equipment, location, and value. Before King Charles the Second came to his throne, Roger Plaisted had a saw-mill on Great Works river, in Berwick, and the names of Great Works, and Plaisted, of Douty, and Spencer, associated with him, carry across to the Penobscot, where in the last century we find them all together again. Equally early William Phillips had mills on the Saco, which were burned in 1675. There were early mills on the Mousam Falls, in Wells, and on Josias' river, in Wells, and in other places. We find them equipped with "Dams Flooms Saws Dogs Croes Ironwork Mill Rope," and some have "Peors," and one near the sea has a "Gundalo" to carry freight. Some have two saws. Thus two hundred and fifty years ago there were many saw-mills in Maine very much like the busy little mills which fifty years ago hummed on almost every stream in the State. With the mention in the Baxter Manuscripts of "Humphrey Chadbourne's logging camp on the Newichwannock River," in Berwick, in 1668, we see that, whether imported from England or developed on our own soil, the essentials of lumbering have changed little in two hundred years, save only in the methods of getting the raw materials to the mills.

The history of lumbering in Maine divides itself naturally into three periods, characterized internally by changes in the relation of labor and capital, and outwardly by the specific things accomplished. They may be termed the periods of individualism, of co-operation and of capitalism; or of the development of saw-mills, the development of river driving, and the development of water storage.

In the first, which lasted from the earliest days until after the Revolution, there was, generally speaking, no division of labor, and no massing of capital beyond small local and family partnerships. The same man was lumberman and sawyer, proprietor and laborer; each one worked for himself and by himself. This period was marked by the building of innumerable small saw-mills upon all the lesser coastwise streams. They spread rapidly eastward, and, in spite of the danger from Indians, began to occupy the tributaries of the larger rivers. Benjamin Wheeler, arriving in Hampden about 1769, Silas Hathorn on the Penjejawock a little later, and Joseph Potter on the Kenduskeag soon after, were the earliest mill-builders on the Penobscot river. Thus the mills moved up the streams and into the woods, gnawing their way as they went with their sharp teeth. So clean and so fast did they gnaw that long before 1800 the coast was suffering from a scarcity of wood. Places as far apart as Belfast and Medumcook, near Waldoborough, were reporting in 1790 the lumber all gone and the cord-wood nearly exhausted. At Medumcook cord-wood was selling at the high price of three shillings a cord, and it took a man and four oxen two days to get a cord to market. Under the seal of the "Royal R" the King's surveyors had stripped the coast of its best oak and pine trees; the Portuguese of Madeira had taken the pipe-staves for their wine; the English of Bermuda for a century and a half had been enriched by the harvest reaped from the forests of the Maine coasts. At the close of the Revolution the Maine lumber trade was "played out."

There followed the second period, that of co-operation, lasting about a century, but at its best between 1820 and 1880, reaching the climax of its energy and ingenuity during the forties and fifties. There was lumber enough inland if anyone could devise means for getting it. The difficulties were great. The rivers were large and wholly unnavigable. There were no roads except in winter. There was no power but man and cattle power. The distances were long. To meet the situation, capital had to be massed and the work organized as never before in any American undertaking. But the capital, though borrowed, was locally supplied, and the labor, though differentiated into groups as the work grew more complex, was also local. Capital and labor worked together in harmony for the common good. Though the mills grew in size, number and equipment, as never before, they are not the outstanding features of this period. That was the new methods invented to supply them with materials and the forwarding of this work by specially devised co-operative lumbering associations, boom-associations and river-driving associations.

The most notable exploit of this period was the invention of river-driving. What an achievement this was! A native art brought to the highest perfection through overwhelming discouragements, it has never been appreciated. Space forbids any detailed mention of this great work, but two improvements in tools, which made it possible, should be noticed.

The Maine batteaus,¹ or driving-boats, are a native product. "They never could have driven the Penobscot without boats," writes the veteran lumberman, Mr. Cornelius Murphy, of Oldtown. The large lakes to be crossed and the strong rivers full of rapids, called for boats of a new sort. They must be large cargo carriers, yet of very shallow draft; they must be staunch and seaworthy, yet so light that men could carry them for miles on their shoulders; and they must be incredibly quick, for work on rough water. No one knows the story of the evolution of the batteau, but she seems to be a dory, modified to meet the stationary wave of rough water rather than the heaving wave of the sea. Her origin is unknown, but the names of Ira Wallace, of Oldtown, Hosea B. Maynard, of Bangor, and the Vinal Brothers, of Oldtown, who helped to shape her lines, deserve perpetuation.

The second invention deserving special mention, since from the Penobscot it has spread into all places where lumbering is known, is that of the "peavey." In 1858 Joseph Peavey, of Upper Stillwater, as he stood on the bridge there watching some river-drivers at work with the old "swing-bail" cant-dog, conceived the idea of an improvement in the tool. Going to his son's blacksmith shop nearby, he worked out his idea so quickly that he was able to put the now indispensable tool which bears his name into the hands of one of the same boat's crew he had been watching, William Heald, of Orono. The "Peavey cant-dog" combined the old pick-handspike and the old loose-jaw cant-dog, each weighing about fifteen pounds, into a single lighter tool with a stiff-jointed jaw which dropped freely but could not swing sidewise in the current. The noted lumberman John Ross once declared in a lumberman's meeting that with a Maynard boat and six men with peaveys he could do more than with twenty men and the old tools.

The brief space allotted to this article forbids any detailed account of the branches of the industry. Speaking broadly, the products of the Maine woods were ship timber (including frames) of hard wood; and knees, of juniper, or hackmatack; masts and spars, of pine and spruce; hemlock bark, for tanning; and long and short lumber. Cord-wood, hoop-poles, barrel staves, and the like, were regarded as home by-products. Planks and boards were long lumber; clapboards, laths, fence-pickets and shingle-bolts were short lumber. Until the later years of this period most of this, except shingles, was made of white pine. Fir was never cut; hemlock was left to

¹"Batteaus" advisedly. The French *bateau*, with the plural *bateaux*, means any and all sorts of boats. The Penobscot batteaus are highly specialized boats; moreover, the word is so pronounced, in both singular and plural, and not like the French word.

rot after peeling; spruce was little used except for spars and sometimes in house frames. Pine—"pumpkin pine" and "bull sapling"—was the wood of all others. It was wasted in every way—wasted in cutting, wasted in driving, wasted in sawing, wasted in sorting, and a thousand times more wasted by devastating forest fires, so that today the pine that "cuts like cheese" can be seen only in old wainscot.

The old white pines were noble trees, sometimes six feet through at the butt. One cut on Telos Lake, in 1842, was estimated at seven feet; no man in the crew could mount it with a running jump. In the forties, William and Henry Soper, on Hay brook, cut a tree which scaled 6,660 feet, board measure; and Hathorn and Wiley about the same time cut one on Mattawamkeag which scaled 6,670 feet. It was 52 inches through at 48 feet from the butt cut, which was probably more than four feet from the ground. "Costigan's stick," though not so large, is still remembered. We may compare these dimensions with those of logs today, and then the prices. In 1848, according to Springer, pine lumber averaged per thousand as follows: On St. Croix, \$7.50; on Machias, \$8.00; on Penobscot, \$10.00; on Kennebec, \$12.00; and on the Androscoggin, \$14.30. At this time the Penobscot mills sawed annually about two hundred million feet of long lumber and over half a billion pieces of short lumber, an output which for many years gave to Bangor her title of "the greatest lumber market in the world."

The energy and initiative of the early Maine lumbermen is something to be remembered with pride. Again space makes it imperative to pass over the other rivers in favor of the largest. But, when the locomotive was hardly more than a toy, there was a line of railroad, the second in the United States, between Bangor and Oldtown. When the steamboat was still a rarity, certainly as early as 1845, there was one running on Moosehead Lake, and there were others on the Penobscot running from Oldtown up the river, even sometimes as far as Medway. In that busy decade they were digging canals about the falls, as at Stillwater and Piscataquis; they were erecting great dams across the main river; they were shortening driving distances by cutting "dug-outs" across "ox-bows"; they were making the great sorting booms and creating companies to drive all logs for the owners, instead of, as previously, having every owner drive the whole distance alone. Many ambitious projects were afloat, some of which, like the Seboomook Sluiceway, were never carried out, more of which, like the Telos Cut, with the associated Chamberlain Lake Locks and Chase Dam on Allegash, were successful. These were all purely lumbermen's undertakings. There were no "promoters," there were few engineers. The men who owned land or who worked in the woods planned their own schemes and in great measure executed them without outside help. Many a good dam was made by men whose level was a rifle, whose tools were only axe and auger, pick and shovel. The ingenuity, the common sense, the undaunted determination of these men, are beyond praise.

One of the earliest, if not the first of the co-operative associations upon the Penobscot, was the Ebeme Company, incorporated by the Legislature of 1841 under Samuel Thatcher, Jr., Dominicus Parker and others, for the purpose of improving the east branch of the Pleasant river above Brownville for log-driving. It was a stock company, the stockholders registered in the Deeds Office at Dover. It had power to build dams, sluices, canals and other improvements and to charge a toll upon logs going through the same.

Five years after this, upon somewhat similar lines, was incorporated the famous Penobscot Log Driving Company, which took over the West Branch of the Penobscot, improved the river, and built great dams at Chesuncook and at North Twin Lakes. After 1849 this company did something new. It did not merely collect toll for the use of its improvements, but it took charge of all the logs themselves, and at a rate fixed each year at public auction, "sold the drive" to the lowest bidder, who agreed for a stated price, varying with the distance, to receive, drive and deliver in boom the logs of all operators upon West Branch waters. The original petitioners were Ira Wadleigh, Samuel P. Strickland, Hastings Strickland, Isaac Farrar, William Emerson, Amos M. Roberts, Leonard Jones, Franklin Adams, James Jenkins, Aaron Babb and Cyrus S. Clark. In 1849 the charter was amended, but from 1845 to 1903 the Penobscot Log Driving Company held control of the West Branch and handled its difficult problems with such skill that never but twice did it fail to get its logs into boom,—once in 1861, when the opening of the Civil War made it impossible to get men; and once in 1880, when the dam at Chesuncook "blowed" and left them without a head of water upon the most difficult piece of the river. One year the whole drive was taken down from the Lower Lakes on only a nine-foot head of water, a masterly achievement. In 1903 the Great Northern Paper Company took over its improvements and its rights "so far as such a company possesses rights and powers to store water for manufacturing and driving purposes." There were other log-driving companies, even on the Penobscot, but the West Branch Drive was the most notable.

The Seboomook Sluiceway was a project of the eighteen-forties which deserves mention. It was promulgated in the late thirties, and an act of the Legislature of 1840, amended in 1841, incorporated the Seboomook Company and authorized it to make a canal, six feet wide at the bottom, from the upper Penobscot to the northwest bay of Moosehead Lake, there being a difference in level of 11.36 feet. William Boyd, William Moulton, Nathan Cummings and others were the petitioners. This was an attempt to take Penobscot-cut logs down the Kennebec. It was met by a remonstrance from James Crosby and twenty other Penobscot lumbermen who feared that the six-foot sluice was but a thinly veiled ruse to divert not only the logs but also the water of the upper Penobscot into the Kennebec. The Penobscot men won by a shrewd *ad hominem* argument. Moosehead Lake, of course, is level; but the Penobscot in passing it makes a heavy

fall. If it was lawful for the Kennebec men to draw off Penobscot water by their eleven foot grade at the northwest corner of the lake, it was equally lawful for the Penobscot men to drain Moosehead into the Penobscot at the northeastern corner with a level of more than thirty feet in their favor. Having the most to lose, the Kennebec men were glad to withdraw. In recent years there has been a steam log-carrier at North West Carry. The old "ox-railroad," mentioned by Thoreau and Theodore Winthrop, at North East Carry, built as early as 1842, was for lumbermen's supplies only.

Almost contemporaneous with the Seboomook Sluiceway was the Telos Cut, between Telos Lake on the Allegash system and Webster Lake on the East Branch of the Penobscot. By this the lumber on eight townships of the upper Allegash was brought down the Penobscot instead of going by the long St. John river route. About 1850, by building the Chamberlain Lake Locks and the Chase Dam at the foot of Churchill Lake on Allegash, as much more timberland became tributary to the Penobscot. The history of this undertaking has usually been incorrectly set forth. Even Springer, in his "Forest Life and Forest Trees," 1851 (p. 205), though writing as early as 1848, as his text shows, is in error in saying that the Telos Cut was made *after* the Webster-Ashburton Treaty of 1842. The Cut was made in the winter of 1841-42. William H. Smith and others petitioned for it; Major Hastings Strickland, of Bangor, superintended it; Shepherd Boody executed it, whence it was often called "Shepherd Boody's Cut"; and after a while Rufus Dwinel bought it of Major Strickland. Instead of the Cut being made, as Springer asserts, because the Canadians put an unfair interpretation upon the third section of the Webster-Ashburton Treaty of 1842, by giving a rebate on Dominion lumber passing down the St. John, the rebate itself was merely a retaliatory measure, because the Cut was already in operation.

The facts are these. In the spring of 1841, Major Hastings Strickland built a dam at the outlet of Chamberlain Lake (but not the Locks, which were later) and he also built for Amos M. Roberts, of Bangor, another dam at the head of Telos Lake many miles away. This was unique in that it was a dam built thirty rods away from the water and at the *head* of a lake. But anyone who knows that country can see that the valleys of the Penobscot and of the upper Allegash are continuous, and that at some recent period Chamberlain Lake must have burst out a new outlet at its side. Old lumbermen say that at very high water there used to be a trickle overflowing from Telos to the Penobscot. Certainly, as soon as the dam raised the water in Chamberlain, even though there had been no digging, the water flowed through the gates of the new Telos Dam and down toward the Penobscot. That same fall, 1841, when the water was low, a channel thirty rods long and some ten or fifteen feet wide was dug from the new dam to Telos Lake, and the next winter, 1841-42, the trees were grubbed out on a strip several rods wide down the hill from Telos Lake to Webster Lake a mile away. The only digging was a little at the upper end to direct the

water. When the gates were raised in the spring of 1842 the water went surging down the hillside and tore everything before it, filling Webster Lake with mud and debris for twenty-five rods from the shore. It is not a "canal" in any sense, but a "cut," a wild mountain torrent. That same spring, 1842, Samuel Braley took down a drive of two million and a half of pine. No charter was obtained till 1847, when a toll of twenty cents a thousand was established.

Such is the true history of the Telos Cut. It is worth giving in detail because international questions still fret us in connection with it. The St. John River International Commission is still (1917) trying to decide the rights to the Allegash water. As a matter of fact, with the Chase Dam gone more than fifty years ago and the Chamberlain Locks burned out nearly as long since, with the water which passes through Telos so small in comparison with what must go down through Chamberlain Dam, the rights of the matter are inconsequential. It is another Seboomook Sluiceway problem. If the Dominion has any rights in Maine in the question of rivers taking their rise in this State, in just so much do the Americans have similar rights to the much more important headwaters of the Columbia River rising in British Columbia.

The third, and present period of the lumbering industry or that of capitalism, began in the last decade of the nineteenth century. In it immense capital from outside the State is concentrated and the divorce of capital and labor is entire. Wood is still cut in large quantities, but three-fourths of it is not lumbering in the old sense. It is at once converted into pulp or paper and even these products are regarded as by-products. The production of power, rather than of lumber, accounts for the vast enterprises which have been successfully carried out in the last three decades. To mention only the storage system of the Great Northern Paper Company on the West Branch of the Penobscot, its first project was increasing the flowage of the Lower Lakes and utilizing the vast water-power at the Grand Falls. Fourteen billion cubic feet of water, it is estimated by the Geological Survey, are stored there. In 1912, it made the great flowage of Seboomook into a lake eighteen miles long by from one to five broad, with a storage of four billions of cubic feet. Previous to 1917 it had a storage of sixteen billion cubic feet at Chesuncook Lake, but that year, by the erection of an immense concrete dam below the old Ripogenus Lake, three lakes, Chesuncook, Ripogenus and Caribou, have been flowed into one, and the storage has been increased to twenty-one and a half billions of cubic feet, making the West Branch storage basins have a capacity of about forty billions of cubic feet. Enterprises like this can not be called lumbering projects. While the Government Forestry Department predicts that the old private enterprises will come back again in some measure through the need of the product, we who live here know that we shall never see again anything like the old days of lumbering in Maine.

Chapter XXV
TRANSPORTATION IN MAINE

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THE OLD AND NEW



ARRIVAL OF THE TRAIN
From "Stage Coach and Tavern Days" by Alice Morse Earle

CHAPTER XXV

TRANSPORTATION IN MAINE

Up to the period of the Revolutionary War the means of communication throughout Maine were extremely limited, but seem to have been sufficient for the needs of the population. The usual mode of traveling, even for some years after the Revolution, was on horseback—women, when occasion required, sitting on the pillion behind the men. As population and business increased it became necessary to increase facilities for traveling.

So far as transportation by land was concerned, the transportation of the mail was the first regular means of communication, and it was not until 1775 that the first post office in Maine was established, at Falmouth (now Portland). Prior to 1760 the regular eastern terminus of the mail route in New England was at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, but in that year Cumberland county was formed, and there was established a weekly mail carried on horseback to Falmouth.

Before the Revolution there was not a four-wheel passenger carriage in the State. Two-wheeled chaises were not introduced into Portland until 1760. They were then not in common use, but were articles of luxury which were brought out only on festive occasions, and it was not until about 1800 that the first four-wheel carriage was seen on the streets of Augusta.

In 1787 a wagon drawn by horses was put on the mail route. It left Portsmouth in the morning, reached Kennebunk the first day, Stroudwater the second day, and arrived in Portland the morning of the third day. In 1788 the service was increased to three times a week between Boston and Portland in summer and once a week in winter. Even as late as 1801 the mail was four days going from Portland to Boston. It was not, however, until 1818 that stages commenced running regularly between Portland and Boston, the trip heretofore having been made rather irregularly and by wagons only.

East of Portland the first attempt, as far as is known, to carry passengers was in 1793, between Portland and Hallowell via Bath and Wiscasset. In 1806 regular stages were run between Augusta and Boston. They left Augusta early in the morning and if traveling was good reached Brunswick for breakfast, Freeport for dinner, and Portland in the evening, where lodging for the night was had. Starting early next morning they stopped at Kennebunk for breakfast, Portsmouth for dinner and Newburyport for the second night; they reached Salem for breakfast the next morning and Boston at about noon, the third day.

At one time Hallowell was an important point owing to steamer service on the Kennebec river, and stages ran to Farmington through Winthrop, Dixfield and Wilton and to Norridgewock via Waterville and Skowhegan,

and other stages to Bangor via Belfast. On completion of the Kennebec and Portland railroad to Bath, stages ran from there to Wiscasset, New Castle, Damariscotta, Waldoboro, Thomaston, Rockland and on to Belfast and Bangor.

Service east of Portland was increased as circumstances warranted, so that in 1823 Portland was connected by stage lines with all important points, and in 1825 the White Mountain route via Conway was established. Stage service throughout Maine in connection with places other than Portland was gradually added and in time became very effective, continuing so until the advent of the railroad system. During the land speculation era the travel east was very large, extra stages running between Portland and Bangor.

Water Transportation.—Water communication by sailing vessels had always been maintained between neighboring settlements as well as those more remote, and it is believed that sloops plied regularly between Casco Bay and Boston at an early date. The first steamer in Maine waters of which a record has been made was the *Alpha*, built in 1816, described as a long, flat-bottomed craft of fifteen tons propelled by a screw in the stern. The next steamer of which an account has been found was the *Kennebec*, plying between Portland and Yarmouth, and an advertisement shows that there was a line of steamers consisting of the *Patent* and *Waterville*, the former running between Bath, Portland and Boston, and the latter between Augusta and Bath. The *Patent* was the first steamer from out of the State used to navigate the waters of Maine; she was on the route between Portland and Boston for some time. Ten years later, the *Chancellor Livingston* arrived. She was built under the direction of Robert Fulton, and was put on the Boston-Portland line, but in the same year (1833) the Cumberland Steam Navigation Company was formed, and put on the run between Portland and Boston the steamer *Commodore McDonough* in opposition to the *Chancellor Livingston*. The steamer *Portland*, said to have been the first to use coal, was built in 1835 for the Portland and Boston route, and in that year a line of steamers was running between Portland and the Penobscot river points, also to the Kennebec river points and to Eastport and St. John. All these vessels, however, were withdrawn, it is presumed for lack of patronage, so that at the beginning of 1844 there was no line between Portland and Boston. Later in that year, however, the Portland Steam Packet Company was organized and proceeded to build two steamers for the Portland and Boston route, the *Commodore Preble* and the *General Warren*. It is also a matter of history that on May 22, 1824, the steamer *Maine* visited Belfast, announcing her arrival by the discharge of a small cannon. In 1823 the Kennebec Steam Navigation Company was formed and bought the *Patent*, running her between Bath and Boston as before noted, while on the arrival of the *Maine* she was secured and placed in service between Bath and Eastport and occasionally St. John, touching at all intervening ports. In 1826 the *Maine* was running between Bath and Belfast, and the *Patent* between Belfast and Eastport.

The Portland Steam Packet Company in later years became the Portland Steamship Company. The service proved very successful because of the regularity with which the boats ran, the comfort of this method of travel, and the low rates both for passengers and freight. It was the first successful line to run between Portland and Boston, and as is always the way when one becomes successful in a new business, others desired to imitate. This business, which the courage of the Portland Steam Packet Company had built up and made very prosperous, raised an opposition from another quarter, and a new company was formed which put on the same run a side-wheel boat that by its greater speed attracted passengers.

To meet this competition the Portland Steam Packet Company found it necessary to procure a boat of similar description, to run in connection with their other two boats, which were propeller driven craft. They, therefore, put on the *John Marshall* at great expense, which was able, by its greater speed and capacity, to regain public favor. Two steamers were sold to the government during the Mexican War. Since that time the line has added the following steamers in the order named: the *Atlantic*, *St. Lawrence*, *Montreal*, *Lewiston*, *Forest City*, *John Brooks*, *Tremont*, *Portland*, *Bay State* and *Governor Dingley*. All the above steamers with the exception of the *John Brooks* were built by the company.

In a report made in November, 1863, it is stated that in the twenty years of the company's operations, their boats had made 11,200 trips, carried 1,400,000 passengers and 2,500,000 tons of freight without the loss of a single life—and this great record was continued until the terrible storm of 1898, when the steamer *Portland* was wrecked in Massachusetts Bay and all on board were drowned.

The first regular service between Portland and New York was established in the year 1860, when the New England Steamboat Company was incorporated. The newly formed company started in with two staunch propeller boats plying regularly twice a week each way between Portland and New York City. After many changes the steam communication between the two cities became controlled by the Maine Steamship Company, which with its steamers, the *Chesapeake*, *Franconia*, *Eleanora* and *Winthrop*, rendered efficient service. It was the steamer *Chesapeake* which in 1863 ran down and captured the men of the Confederate navy who had seized the revenue cutter *Caleb Cushing*. After the *Winthrop* came the *Cottage City*, the *Manhattan* and the *John Englis*, *Horatio Hall*, *North Star* and *Northland*.

Another important line in the old days was the International Steamship Company, which was incorporated in the same year as the New York line. This company ran steamers between Boston, Portland and Eastport and St. John, N. B. They began operations with two boats, the *Admiral* and the *Eastern City*, and afterwards built superior boats called the *New Brunswick*, the *New England* and the *New York*, and later added the *Cumberland* and *State of Maine*. An attempt was made to establish direct

service between Portland and Halifax with a magnificent steamer, the *Falmouth*. The enterprise, however, proved unsuccessful and was abandoned.

About the commencement of the Civil War a steamship line was established between Portland and Bangor, the service was performed by the steamer *Daniel Webster*, and a fine portrait of Webster adorned the cabin. This portrait now hangs in the office of the Preble House in Portland. The steamer *T. F. Secor* was at one time on the route. Soon after the war a line was established, known as the Portland, Bangor and Machias Steamboat Company, it consisted of the steamer *City of Richmond*, plying between Portland and Bangor, and the steamer *Lewiston*, which had been purchased from the Portland Steam Packet Company, and ran between Portland and Machiasport. Both steamers did a good business until the night trains were put on by the Maine Central railroad, when the Bangor line ceased to pay and the *City of Richmond* was transferred to the route between Portland and Bar Harbor—Mt. Desert having then been discovered—the *Lewiston* continuing to run through to Machiasport. The route was finally absorbed by the Maine Central railroad, which built the steamer *Frank Jones*, whereupon the *Richmond* and *Lewiston* were sold.

Early in 1826, the Kennebec Steam Navigation Company having disposed of sufficient stock to warrant the investment, purchased a steamer which ran in connection with the steamer *Patent* between Bath and Boston, but in 1828 the company closed up its business, selling its property at auction. On the abandonment of the route by this company, other parties in 1829 brought on from New York a steamer to ply between Boston, Portland and Bath, and still others tried the experiment in 1832 and 1833.

Besides steamers running as mentioned, there was built in Gardiner in 1832 the stern-wheel steamer *Ticonic* to run between Gardiner and Waterville, and the following year the *Hancock* was put on the route between Bath and Augusta, thus forming a through route between Waterville and Augusta in connection with steamers to and from Bath. In 1835 the steamer *McDonough* was running between Gardiner and Boston.

In 1836 a company was formed at Gardiner to purchase a suitable steamer to run between Gardiner and Boston, resulting in the purchase of the steamer *New England*, which was lost in a collision off Boone Island in June, 1838; thereupon the steamer *Huntress* was chartered. As is the case with all good things, competition ensued, and in this instance no less a personage than Commodore Vanderbilt, soon brought on from New York certain steamers to run between Gardiner and Portland and Gardiner and Boston; a compromise was finally made and Vanderbilt on receiving a good bonus, withdrew. In 1840 business had so increased that while the *Huntress* continued to run to Boston by way of Portland, another and larger steamer, the *John W. Richmond*, was purchased and placed on the route.

In 1841 the Eastern railroad reached Portsmouth and put on the steamer *M. Y. Beach* to connect with their trains from that place to Hallo-

well. This service was continued until the railroad reached Portland, when the steamer *Telegraph* was put on to make the Hallowell connection.

In 1843 Captain Sanford of New York put on the steamer *Splendid* between Hallowell and Boston in opposition to the regular line. On account of this opposition the rates became ruinous. It is said that one line made the fare twelve and one-half cents, whereupon the other advertised free passage, which was met and breakfast thrown in. In 1844 the *Richmond* was burned, and the steamer *Penobscot* was secured. In 1845 another opponent appeared, a new company called the People's Line. The steamer *John Marshall* was purchased and again low fares were in order. The old company then built the *Kennebec* and placed her on the Boston route, while they had the *Charter Oak* on the inside route. The steamers *Flushing* and *Bellingham* also formed a daily line between Augusta and Bath, while the *Huntress* connected Gardiner with the railroad at Portland. The People's Line not proving profitable, in 1846 the *Marshall* was sold and the old company regained full control. In 1850 the *T. F. Secor* was placed on the line between Hallowell and Bath, connecting with the *Kennebec* and Portland railroad, which had then reached Bath, and when the railroad reached Richmond she plied between that point and Augusta.

In 1850 the new steamer *Ocean* came on to the Boston line and ran nearly two years, when she was run into by the Cunard steamship *Canada* in Boston Harbor and, taking fire, was burnt to the water's edge. In 1855 the *Governor* took the place of the *Ocean*. In 1857 the *Eastern Queen*, which had been built for the line the previous year, began her trips to Boston. In 1860 while being repaired in winter quarters at Wiscasset, she was partially burned. The *State of Maine* was chartered in her place. Like many other steamers, the *Queen* was commandeered by the government in 1861, and remained in the public service for two years. On her return to the *Kennebec* she resumed the Boston service, remaining on the route until 1870, when she was sold to New York parties. In 1865 an opposition line put the steamer *Daniel Webster* on the Gardiner and Boston route. In this year the steamer *Star of the East* was built in New York and soon after placed on the regular line; at that time she was the most finely equipped boat running out of Boston. In 1866 the Bath Company, with the steamers *Daniel Webster* and *Eastern City*, ran a daily line to Boston in opposition to the *Star of the East* and *Eastern Queen*, and great competition followed; the fares to Boston were reduced to twenty-five cents and crowds of people took the trip. At the close of the season the Bath steamers were withdrawn, and there has been no opposition to the *Kennebec* Company since. From 1870 to 1889 the *Star* was the only boat on the *Kennebec* route.

Meanwhile the stern-wheel steamer *Della Collins* was built to take the place of the *Clarion*, running between Gardiner and Augusta as a tender for the Boston boats. In 1889 the up-to-date steamer *Kennebec* was launched at Bath and placed in service on alternate days with the *Star*,

and in 1891 the *Star* was rebuilt and her name changed to the *Sagadahoc*. In 1902 she was sold. In the winter of 1896-97 the Kennebec Company built the steamer *Lincoln* for a winter route between Boston and Bath and a summer route between Boston and Boothbay, but after two years' service she also was sold.

In addition to the steamers already mentioned as running on the Kennebec, the steamers *J. D. Pierce* and *Lawrence* ran between Bath and Augusta, connecting with the railroad trains at Richmond. Looking at the Kennebec above Augusta today, it hardly seems possible that steamers used to run regularly between Gardiner, Hallowell, Augusta and Waterville, but such was the case, the first as before mentioned being the *Ticonic*. She made her first trip to Waterville June 1st, 1832, and was received with great demonstrations of rejoicing. She continued to run until the building of the dam at Augusta, when it was found that the lock constructed for the purpose of allowing navigation was too small to accommodate vessels of her size. She was quickly followed by others, and it is said that at one time as many as six steamers left the wharf at Waterville daily. They were flat-bottomed, of light draft, with stern-wheels, none over fifty tons burden. On May 23, 1848, the steamer *Halifax*, a new boat and the finest of the fleet, was making her record trip to Augusta, when on leaving the lock the boiler exploded, six persons being killed and others severely wounded. The last successful steamer on the route was the *Clinton*, which remained there until some time after the railroad commenced operating. In 1890 an attempt was made to restore steam navigation on the Kennebec, and the steamer *City of Waterville* was built at Brewer, and on July 11th of that year sailed for Waterville. Business, however, not warranting the continuance of the service, she was soon after sold. Since her exit no further attempt has been made for service above Augusta; in fact, it would now be impossible, owing to the closing of the lock at Augusta.

In 1833 the Boston and Bangor Steamship Company was formed, which built the steamer *Bangor* in New York in the following year and placed her on the route between Boston and Bangor. We are told that for fuel she used wood, consuming about twenty-five cords each trip. The *Bangor* continued on the route until her sale in 1841. During 1835 an opposition line was formed which seems to have resulted in a compromise, as in 1836 the Eastern Steamship Mail Line was the name under which all steamboats on the Penobscot were operated.

In November, 1842, the railroad was opened from Boston to Portland, greatly diminishing the business of the Boston boats, but steamers ran for some time on the Penobscot and Portland route.

In 1843, Captain Sanford placed on the route between Bangor and Boston the steamer *Charter Oak*, and the following year he also ran the steamer *Admiral*. Commodore Vanderbilt, who had followed close after Sanford, had on the route between Boston and Bangor the steamer *Telegraph*, which continued there through the season of 1843, but in 1844 she

was transferred to the Kennebec. Great competition ensued on the Bangor and Boston route, fares which had been as high as \$6 or \$7 being reduced to \$1. In 1845 Mr. Sanford transferred the *Penobscot* to the route between Boston and Bangor, and this line at once acquired his name. Capt. William Flowers was pilot, and on the first trip of the new line, June 17, 1845, he tried the experiment of running by time and courses, which was soon generally adopted and is now the universal practice.

It would appear that in all the years of steamer service, experiments were being tried, and it is found that steamers were often on the Kennebec for a while and then transferred to the *Penobscot* or *vice versa*, or on the run between Portland and Boston and again running elsewhere. In 1848 Mr. Sanford placed the steamer *W. J. Pease* on the outside route with the *Penobscot*, and in June of that year the *Senator*, owned by Daniel Drew and James Cunningham, made tri-weekly trips between Bangor and Portland. In 1849 Sanford sold the *Penobscot* and put the *Kennebec*, built in 1845, on in her place. On this boat, in August, 1849, the cholera made its first appearance in Bangor, and her commander, Capt. A. M. Sanford, was one of the victims. The new steamer *Boston* was also in that year on the Boston and Bangor route. With various changes in routes, the service was continued by the steamers mentioned, though in 1855 the *General Knox* made weekly trips from Bangor to Boston, and in 1856 the only boats running were the *Daniel Webster* and the *Eastern City*. The event of the season we are told was the arrival in Bangor in this year of the splendid steamer *Memnemon Sanford*. Until 1859 the routes of the *Webster* and *Sanford* were unchanged. In 1860 the *Kennebec* took the place of the *Sanford*. In 1861 the *Webster* was chartered by the government for transportation of troops, as was the case with the *Sanford* in 1862. While the *Webster* returned north, the *Sanford* never did. In 1863 the new steamer *Harvest Moon* ran for a short time between Bangor and Portland. It was also in 1863 that the steamer *Katahdin* came on the Boston and Bangor route, followed in 1867 by the *Cambridge*. The Sanford Steamship Company was incorporated in 1875, and the *Katahdin* and the *Cambridge* transferred to that company. In 1882 the corporate name was changed to Boston and Bangor Steamship Company. In 1882 the new steamer *Penobscot* was added to the line.

Various steamship lines have from time to time crept in connecting river and shore cities and towns with mainland and island resorts, notably between Bath and Boothbay, Calais and Eastport. So also steamers have for years run on Sebago, Moosehead and the Rangeley Lakes, and small craft on other of the many lakes of Maine. Probably the most notable line outside of the Boston, Portland, Kennebec and *Penobscot* lines, is that operated by the Maine Central railroad, consequent upon the building, in 1884, of the Mt. Desert branch, and plying between the terminus of the road and Bar Harbor and the various other landings on Mt. Desert Island, also between Rockland, Castine and other landings east of that point as feeders for their trains.

Before the building of the European and North American railway, steamers ran on the Penobscot between Old Town and Lincoln and Mat-tawamkeag.

The Portland Steam Packet Company, the Maine Steamship Company, the International Steamship Company, the Kennebec Steam Navigation Company, Bath and Boothbay, and Boston and Bangor Steamship Company, have all been consolidated and by purchase or otherwise become the property of the Eastern Steamship Corporation. Since the consolidation, this corporation has had built for the old International Line the steamers *Governor Cobb* and *Calvin Austin*; for the Kennebec Line the steamer *R. B. Fuller*; and for the Boston and Bangor Line the steamers *City of Rockland*, *City of Bangor*, *Belfast* and *Camden*. The *North Star* and *Northland*, the *Governor Cobb* and *Calvin Austin* have been requisitioned by the government for war purposes.

Portland has now grown to be a considerable ocean steamship port, as is shown by its splendid elevators, taking the place of the one limited to small capacity which formerly existed. The Allan, Leyland, White Star and other lines have run in winter regularly, and one or more lines have maintained a service in summer, so that it might be said one existed all the year round. The European war demoralized the service, but the facilities and harbor are so grand that now the war is over, increased service may be expected.

Canals.—As early as 1791 steps were taken to ascertain the practicability of a canal from Sebago Lake to the lower part of the Presumpscot river, and in 1795 a charter was obtained to construct such a canal. Work was commenced, but was soon abandoned, the purchased land reverting to its former owners. In 1821 another company was formed, and having received a charter proceeded to construct a canal through to Portland, which was completed in 1829, thus connecting Portland with the towns of Westbrook, Windham, Gorham, Standish, Bridgton and Harrison. For a time the canal did an extensive business, but after the building of railroads it was abandoned and is now a ruin. A recent newspaper item states that at the time of the opening of the canal a hundred boats or more were in operation.

In 1807 an act was secured from the Massachusetts Legislature for the building of a canal from the Kennebec river through Cobbossee Lakes into the Androscoggin and thence into the Rangeley Lakes region, but nothing was ever done.

Steam Railroads.—The movement in favor of railroads began in Massachusetts as early as 1828, and gradually extended to this State; the first charter granted for a railway by the Maine Legislature was given in February, 1832, for a short line, only three-fourths of a mile in length, between Calais and Milltown, which now forms a part of what was the St. Croix and Penobscot railway.

In the March following a charter was granted for a road between Bangor and Old Town, the original design of both these roads being the transportation of lumber. The Calais road was not completed in 1835, when further time was asked for, and the Bangor and Old Town railroad was therefore the first railroad put in operation in this State.

Dr. Lapham in his "History of Maine Railroads," says that in 1835 the question of a railway from some point on our seaboard to some point in Lower Canada was agitated, and that a civil engineer was employed to ascertain the most feasible route, the result being that a line between Quebec and Belfast, on Penobscot Bay, was declared the shortest route, and in 1836 the Belfast and Quebec railroad was chartered, but the enterprise died, and nothing grew out of it.

Between 1832 and 1840 a number of railroads were chartered in different parts of the State, none being constructed during those years and few of them at all, though there is a record of a railroad between Whitneyville and Machias built for the transportation of lumber, and it is understood that the old locomotive on the University of Maine grounds is one which was used on this road.

After the Bangor, Old Town and Milford railroad, as it was known, or as it was locally called the Veazie road, the next railroad to be built in Maine was the Portland, Saco and Portsmouth railroad, extending between Portland and Portsmouth, and completed in 1842, which connected with the Eastern railroad then running between Boston and Portsmouth. The following year the Boston and Maine railroad was completed between Boston and South Berwick Junction. For years the Portland, Saco and Portsmouth handled the business for both roads, the time tables for all trains from Boston being so arranged that after making a connection at Portsmouth with the Eastern railroad the train was run to South Berwick Junction, where the cars that had arrived over the Boston and Maine were attached and consolidated into one train through to Portland, a like course being pursued in the opposite direction.

The Portland, Saco and Portsmouth railroad was, somewhere near the year 1870, leased to the Eastern railroad, the natural desire of the latter to secure all the business possible, caused differences of opinion to arise between its management and that of the Boston and Maine railroad, finally resulting in the latter company extending their own line through from South Berwick to Portland, completing it in 1873, so that there were practically parallel lines between South Berwick and Portland, which fact, after the lease of the Eastern railroad to the Boston and Maine, was rather to be deplored, as the double tracking of the old route would have been and is perhaps now capable of taking care of the business, excepting that the development of shore resorts at Wells, Kennebunk, Old Orchard and Scarborough might have necessitated accommodations which were not fully given by the old line.

Some writers have claimed that as the Boston roads tended to divert

business from Portland, that city began seriously to consider the advisability of building other lines which would be more in the interest of Portland, and in 1839 a survey was made of a route between Portland and Lake Champlain, which was found to have great advantages and which would open a large trade between New Hampshire and Vermont; but it remained for a then resident of Bangor, the Hon. John A. Poor, to suggest what is now known as the Grand Trunk railway between Portland and Montreal, and in 1845 the Maine Legislature authorized such a road from Portland to the boundary line, under the name of the Atlantic and St. Lawrence Railway, a similar charter being obtained in Canada.

The method of convincing the people of Canada that the distance from Montreal to Liverpool via Portland was less than the distance via Boston was somewhat unique. Hull in his "Hand-Book of Portland," gives the story in detail. He says that the steamer *Kennebec* was sent to Annapolis, N. S., to receive the mails which were to be left at Halifax by a Cunard steamer en route to Boston. The mail was carried overland between Halifax and Annapolis, relays of horses being placed along the route. The distance between Halifax and Annapolis, of 102 miles, was traversed in ten hours and eighteen minutes, and the steamer covered the distance of 310 miles between Annapolis and Portland in thirty-one hours. The *Kennebec* was sighted from the Portland observatory three hours before arrival, an express was waiting, and started in an open sleigh for Montreal, relays of horses being stationed at short distances. The time to Andover, Maine, 74 miles, was four hours and thirty-five minutes; to Sherbrook, P. Q., 90 miles, seven hours and thirty-seven minutes; thence to Montreal, 91 miles, six hours and twelve minutes; the total distance of 255 miles between Portland and Montreal was made in eighteen hours and twenty-four minutes, the arrival at Montreal being hours ahead of a like express starting from Boston on the arrival of the Cunard steamer at that port.

In 1845 ground was broken for the Atlantic and St. Lawrence railroad, which was opened to South Paris early in 1850. By the time of the completion of the line to Island Pond, a line from Montreal to that place had been built, so that in 1853 through trains between Montreal and Portland were run, and leases to the Grand Trunk Railway followed.

Previous to the building of the Atlantic and St. Lawrence, various lines were contemplated, and as soon as that line was projected, charters followed in rapid succession, but suffice it to say that the system now known as the Maine Central railroad embraces the railroads of the corporations originally chartered under the following names: the Androscoggin and Kennebec; Penobscot and Kennebec; Kennebec and Portland; Somerset and Kennebec; Androscoggin, Leeds and Farmington; Dexter and Newport; Belfast and Moosehead Lake; European and North American; Portland and Ogdensburg; Maine Shore Line; Eastern Maine; Dexter and Newport; Dexter and Piscataquis; Knox and Lincoln; Upper Coos; Coos Valley & Hereford Railways; Somerset; Portland and Oxford Central, later Port-

land and Rumford Falls; Sebasticook and Moosehead; and Washington County.

It must be remembered that the raising of funds to build roads in those days was by no means so easy as now, and had it not been for cities and towns loaning their credit, a great many of the railroads as they exist today would not have been built at that time. Many of these credits had to be met by municipalities, and in consequence a constitutional amendment was passed forbidding any city or town to incur a debt, except for strictly temporary loans or war, in excess of 5 per cent. of its valuation.

Josiah H. Drummond says, in an unfinished history of the Maine Central railroad, that there were two lines contemplated running east from Portland, because it was deemed of great advantage to a place to be a terminus, but the people of Augusta were not willing to put money into an enterprise that would construct a railroad through that city to terminate at Waterville. They took the position that has since that time built so many railroads where they were scarcely needed, that money could not be obtained to build the Back Route, as it was then and is now called, and they treated the project with something like contempt. People interested in the Back Route, however, went ahead in the matter, and November 27, 1849, saw the first train over the Androscoggin and Kennebec into Waterville.

As soon as the road was completed to Waterville, the advisability of a line to Bangor was seen, and the Penobscot and Kennebec railroad organized, which was opened to Bangor, July 30, 1855. Possibly this road might not have been opened as early as that date had it not been for an act of the Legislature by which the city of Bangor was authorized to aid in the construction of such a road, provided that one director should be elected by the City Council, which condition was faithfully carried out until the bonds issued by the City of Bangor to make the loan were paid. The Androscoggin and Kennebec and the Penobscot and Kennebec were consolidated under the name of the Maine Central in 1862.

The Kennebec and Portland railroad was opened to Augusta in 1852, although it had been in operation to Brunswick and Bath as early as 1849. The Somerset and Kennebec, to run between Augusta and Skowhegan, was soon begun, and the first train crossed the bridge at Waterville on January 19, 1855.

The Atlantic and St. Lawrence, Androscoggin and Kennebec, Penobscot and Kennebec, and Leeds and Farmington, were what was then termed broad gauged roads, i. e., five feet six inches, and as the Atlantic and St. Lawrence had been built with that gauge, it seemed necessary that the Androscoggin and Kennebec should have the same. The lower route, however, was of the present standard gauge, four feet eight and a half inches, as was the Portland, Saco and Portsmouth, and when the Penobscot and Kennebec was planned, the Somerset and Kennebec having then been built from Augusta to Kendalls Mills of standard gauge, a serious controversy arose as to its gauge, facetiously called the war of the gauges, but the advocates of the broad gauge finally triumphed.

On the consolidation of the then Maine Central and Portland and Kennebec, in 1870, it was at once seen that the gauges of the united roads should be uniform. so the part of the Maine Central between Waterville and Bangor was made standard gauge, and shortly trains began to run between Bangor and Boston via Augusta. On the completion of the extension of the Maine Central from Danville Junction to Cumberland Junction, the part of the line between Waterville and Danville Junction was also narrowed, and it was only a year or two afterwards that the Grand Trunk railway changed over their entire system.

The European and North American railway was also originally built broad gauge, but was eventually narrowed. It ran between Bangor, in the State of Maine, and St. John, Province of New Brunswick, and was formally opened Wednesday, October 19, 1871, at Vanceboro, Maine, which town is separated from the Province by the river St. Croix. There were present on that occasion Ulysses S. Grant, President of the United States; General Belknap, Secretary of War; Hon. George M. Robeson, Secretary of the Navy; Generals Porter and Babcock, of the President's staff; James G. Blaine, Speaker of the National House of Representatives; Sidney Perham, Governor of the State of Maine; Lord Lisgar, Governor-General of the Dominion of Canada, and suite; Governor Wilmot, of New Brunswick.

Through passenger trains commenced running regularly to St. John, Monday, October 16, 1871. Great things were expected of this road with its grand name, for if European steamers ran to and from Halifax and made close connections with its trains the distance between New York and Liverpool could be shortened by two days, but the necessity of an additional loading and unloading at Halifax, caused delays which seriously diminished the rapidity of the transit. On November 13, 1882, the European and North American railway was leased to the Maine Central for 999 years from April 1, 1882, and that company took the active management of the road. Subsequently arrangements were made with the Canadian Pacific for joint use of the line between Mattawamkeag and Vanceboro.

The Bangor and Piscataquis railroad, projected and built in the interests of the city of Bangor, was in operation between Old Town and Dover in 1869, using the track of the European and North American railway, which, although not completed through to Vanceboro until 1871, was earlier operated between Bangor and Old Town and beyond. The Bangor and Piscataquis was completed through to Guilford in 1871, to Abbot (Monson Junction) in 1875, thence to Blanchard in 1877, but not to Greenville, for lack of funds, until 1884. The Bangor and Katahdin Iron Works railroad was in operation from Milo Junction to Brownville in 1881, and to Katahdin Iron Works in 1883, and was leased to the Bangor and Piscataquis in 1887. These two railroads were leased to the Bangor and Aroostook in 1892. Previous to the lease an effort was made by the Maine Central railroad to acquire the Bangor and Piscataquis, but the attempt failed, as the city of Bangor, the principal owner of the Bangor and Piscataquis,

did not consider the offer of the Maine Central liberal enough. The Dexter and Piscataquis railroad, now a part of the Maine Central, was then built through from Dexter to Dover and Foxcroft. Both the Bangor and Piscataquis and Katahdin Iron Works were originally constructed broad gauge, but changed to standard in 1877. Maine in 1870 also had within its limits a part of a railroad known as the Houlton Branch railroad of Maine, running from Sebec Junction on the then New Brunswick Railway to Houlton, three miles of the road, were in the State. In 1875 the Aroostook River railroad was constructed from Aroostook Junction on the then New Brunswick railway to Fort Fairfield, and the following year it was extended through to Caribou, while six years later it was finished from Caribou to Presque Isle. The Houlton Branch and Aroostook River roads now form a part of the Canadian Pacific.

The success of the Bangor and Aroostook railroad has been phenomenal. Having, as before stated, leased the Bangor and Piscataquis and Bangor and Katahdin Iron Works railroads in 1892, it continued the construction of its line to Houlton, so that it was in operation in 1894. It extended the road to Fort Fairfield and Caribou the next year, from Ashland Junction to Ashland in 1896, from Caribou to Limestone in 1897, and from Caribou to Van Buren in 1899. In 1902 it purchased the Patten and Sherman railroad, built in 1895-96, and in 1903 put in operation a branch from Ashland to Fort Kent.

For the sake of a water outlet, the Northern Maine and Seaport railroad from Lagrange to Searsport was built, and in 1905 was taken over by the Bangor and Aroostook. In the year 1907 the Bangor and Aroostook built a branch from Millinocket to East Millinocket, a second track from South Lagrange to Northern Maine Junction, the Medford cut-off, so-called from South Lagrange to Packards, and a second track from Packards to West Sebois. In 1909 branches from Van Buren to Grand Isle and from Kent Junction to St. Francis were in operation, and in 1910 the Washburn extension and the extension, Grand Isle to Fort Kent, were in operation. It should be noted that previous to the building of the Northern Maine and Seaport extension the Bangor and Aroostook made use of the Maine Central tracks between Bangor and Old Town, and their repair shops were located in Old Town, but on completion of the Searsport line the Bangor and Aroostook delivered their trains to the Maine Central at Northern Maine Junction, and eventually moved their repair shops from Old Town to Milo Junction, now called Derby.

The growing popularity of Mt. Desert as a summer resort was early recognized; the Shore Line Railroad Company was chartered in 1881 and arrangements were made for its construction. It was opened from Bangor to Mt. Desert Ferry, June 23, 1884, and later conveyed to the Maine Central Railroad Company. Bar Harbor and other resorts are reached by steamers from the end of the line at Mt. Desert Ferry. Business has so grown that instead of one small steamer, all that was originally planned

for the service, quite a fleet is now required. At the time of building the Maine Shore line, in order to avoid building another bridge across the Penobscot at Bangor, the Maine Central acquired the Eastern Maine railroad, originally chartered in 1871 as the Bucksport and Bangor railroad, extending from Bangor to Bucksport, and leased on opening to the European and North American Railway Company, but in 1879 relinquished by them.

In Eastern Maine it needed only the completion of the Washington County railway to give that section of the State all the railroad facilities needed. This line was chartered in 1893, construction was commenced in 1898, and through trains were running the following year. In 1904 it passed under the control of the Maine Central Railroad Company, whose tracks were used between Bangor and Washington Junction.

The great Canadian Pacific railway, extending across the continent from the Atlantic to the Pacific, in order to make the shortest route between the upper Canadian and the Maritime Provinces, runs from the boundary line between Maine and Canada easterly across the State to Mattawamkeag, thence by trackage rights over the Maine Central to Vanceboro, with branches in Maine from Presque Isle and Houlton to the eastern boundary, a total distance in Maine of 233.30 miles, of which 56.60 miles are trackage rights over the Maine Central.

The Portland and Rochester, chartered as the York and Cumberland, was running to Rochester in 1871, and as soon as connections were made with Nashua and Worcester it became a desirable route for freight purposes. The entire line between Portland and Worcester is now a part of the Boston and Maine system.

The Portland and Ogdensburg railroad was completed through to Fabyans in August, 1875, and there formed a connection with roads to Montreal and the West.

Probably no road in Maine maintained a greater struggle for existence than that which is now the Portland and Rumford Falls railway, especially when under its old name of the Portland and Oxford Central. The actions of the Hon. F. O. J. Smith in connection with this line would fill a volume. The road was not of much account until taken hold of by a syndicate with ex-Governor Washburn as president; after his death it was placed under the able management of Hon. William L. Putnam.

On the growth of the pulp and paper industry and the discovery of the magnificent water power at Rumford Falls, a company was formed which purchased this road and extended it through to Rumford Falls, that great promoter and financier, Mr. H. J. Chisholm, being made its president, and now a line operated by this company has, in order to get out material for pulp and paper, been extended through to the Rangeley Lakes.

When the Somerset railroad was projected and a charter asked for, a war of the gauges again ensued, the then broad gauge or upper route insisting that it be built from Oakland up, while the lower road desired it

be built from Skowhegan. So, too, when the charter for the Belfast and Moosehead road came up, the upper route named Burnham, on the Maine Central, as the initial point, while the lower route claimed that Augusta was the logical point. The broad gauge parties were successful in both instances, but the gauge of both roads has now been changed to standard. At the present time the Somerset has been extended through to Moosehead Lake, and has thus become a valued feeder to the Maine Central, by which it is now owned. Great things were expected of the Sebecook and Moosehead railroad, originally started from Pittsfield as an extension of the Belfast and Moosehead Lake railroad, it was thought that it would bring the products of that portion of Central Maine to the seaport town of Belfast, but these hopes have never been realized, and now both roads form a part of the Maine Central system.

Other railroads in Maine are the standard gauge Georges Valley, between Warren and Union; the Lime Rock, connecting the quarries around Rockland with that city; the York Harbor and Beach, controlled by the Boston and Maine railroad, and running between Kittery and the points mentioned; and the Rangeley Lakes and Megantic, an extension of the Rangeley Lakes Division of the Maine Central towards Megantic.

While on the matter of standard gauge roads it might be well to note that for business reasons a certain portion of the Boston and Maine and Maine Central tracks, together with the Union Passenger Station and other passenger and freight buildings, have been transferred to a separate organization known as the Portland Terminal Company.

Some years since attention was called to narrow gauge railroads, and arguments were advanced as to their cheapness of building and operation as compared with standard gauges, resulting in the construction of two-foot gauge roads as follows, viz.: the Sandy River and the Phillips and Rangeley, now known as the Sandy River and Rangeley Lakes, and the Bridgton and Saco River, these companies being controlled by the Maine Central; there are also the Kennebec Central, Randolph to Togus, and the Wiscasset, Waterville and Farmington, from Wiscasset north. There were expectations of great success for the latter company, and while the present northern terminal is at Albion, the road did at one time run into Winslow, and an attempt was made to bridge the Kennebec at Waterville, the road was then to continue on to Farmington, and there connect with the narrow-gauge system beyond. With this end in view, work was commenced at Farmington and a partial grade was made for some distance towards Waterville, piers also were commenced at Winslow for the bridge, but the project eventually failed because of want of funds. Another narrow-gauge road is the Monson of three feet, connecting with the Bangor and Aroostook.

The steam railroad mileage of Maine, according to the last report available, is 2,301.03.

Up to the year 1870, so far as the movement of freight was concerned, one train each way per day was amply sufficient for the line between Port-

land and Augusta, as it was for the back route between Portland and Waterville, and in some previous years a train between Augusta and Skowhegan up one day and down the next was all that was run, though, even in those days, there was quite a large lumber business at Kendalls Mills, the freight of which was divided between the two roads. None of the lumber trade of the lower Kennebec then went by rail unless obliged to, it being taken care of by sailing vessels.

When the Androscoggin was built from Brunswick to Lewiston, with its tracks entering all the mills' doors, the Portland and Kennebec may have been obliged to run another train between Brunswick and Portland to accommodate this business. Between Waterville and Bangor the arrangement was for the freight which arrived from Portland at night to lay over at Waterville until the following morning and then be taken to Bangor, requiring about three days between Boston and Bangor; returning, a train left Bangor about noon, arrived at Waterville in the evening, and there remained until the following morning. It is not strange that with such meager facilities freight traffic did not develop more rapidly. In old days, too, the cars of one company were not allowed to be used over the rails of other companies, consequently at Portland freight to and from Boston had to be transferred, and for this reason the steamers between Boston and Portland carried about as much freight for the interior of Maine as did the rail lines.

It is not entirely to the summer resorts that the prosperity of Maine is attributable; the very existence of railroads within our State has made possible the establishment of those great industries which tend in every particular to bring Maine to the front. The railroads are the arteries of a State through which its blood, otherwise its business, flows and pulsates, and as the railroads prosper, so does the State. How could the magnificent cotton industries situated on the Saco, the Androscoggin, the Kennebec and St. Croix rivers, or the pulp and paper mills at Cumberland Mills, Yarmouth, Rumford Falls, Livermore, Jay, Topsham, Madison, Winslow, Brewer, Millinocket and other places; or the woolen mills scattered all over the State, the lumber mills, and the hundreds of other manufacturies with which Maine abounds, do without railroads? How much of Maine's prosperity depends on the railroads which enable the farmer to send his products to the large cities, thus making it possible for him to extend his farm development to its present great proportions as could never have been done in the days before the advent of the railroads? Indeed the very existence of many of the places mentioned above is due to the railroads, without which Maine would be simply the agricultural State of our forefathers.

Previous to the commencement of the street railroad system, several attempts were made to run omnibuses over certain parts of Portland, and in 1850 such a line was in operation, but was not successful. In 1862 a company was chartered under the name of the Portland and Forest Avenue Railroad Company, and in October, 1863, it commenced running horse-driven cars over different locations in the city. This company, reorganized

under the name of the Portland Railroad Company, has gradually extended its system and has consolidated with the Portland and Yarmouth, the Portland and Cape Elizabeth, and other companies, most of them organized after the introduction of electricity. It is now controlled by the Cumberland County Power and Light Company. Beyond the city limits it operates over eighty miles of lines, extending east as far as Yarmouth, north and west through Westbrook to South Windham and Gorham, west to Old Orchard and Saco, and south through South Portland to Cape Elizabeth.

The next street horse railways to be built were the Lewiston and Auburn, the Biddeford and Saco, the Waterville and Fairfield, and others of less importance, all of which as soon as the use of electricity for the movement of street cars was perfected were changed over—the Portland system not being among the first because, as the company claimed, they wished to wait and get the best. The only horse-drawn street railway now existing in Maine is the Fryeburg Horse Railroad, which is only about three miles in extent. At the time this chapter was compiled the trolley lines operating in Maine had a total mileage of 514.09, which, however, includes 5.89 miles operated outside the State.

While considerable time has been spent in reviewing the transportation system of Maine, it may not be amiss in closing to say that the State is keeping up with others in the development of good roads, having already expended over two millions of dollars for the purpose. Most of the trunk lines have been completed, and work goes steadily on. In a very few years the State will be entirely covered, so that the comparatively new means of transportation, namely, the automobile, may find Maine replete with good roads whereby every city and town therein may be easily reached, and the magnificent scenery of the State be the more enjoyed.



Chapter XXVI
GOVERNMENTAL AND INSTITUTIONAL
DEVELOPMENT



FEDERAL BUILDING, BANGOR



COURT HOUSE, BANGOR; Y. M. C. A. BUILDING, UPPER LEFT

CHAPTER XXVI

GOVERNMENTAL AND INSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The governmental development of Maine has not been marked by any striking incidents. Like other New England States, she has been conservative, yet not unprogressive, and might take for her own the maxim of Pope:

"Be not the first by whom the new is tried,
Nor yet the last to lay the old aside."

The constitution that she adopted when admitted to the Union, is still, though with important modifications, the constitution of the State. No convention has ever been called to shape anew her fundamental law. Yet the constitution has once been recast. In January, 1875, the Legislature authorized the Governor to appoint a commission of ten to report to the Legislature by February 15 such amendments to the constitution as they should deem advisable. The commission was appointed and duly reported, and nine of the amendments recommended by them were accepted by the Legislature and ratified by the people. One of the amendments provided that, after the people had acted, "the chief justice of the supreme judicial court shall arrange the constitution, as amended, under appropriate titles, and in proper articles, parts and sections, omitting all sections, clauses, and words not in force—and shall submit the same to the Legislature at its next session, and the draft, and arrangement, when approved by the Legislature, shall be enrolled on parchment and deposited in the office of the secretary of state." It was provided that certain directions for the organization of the new State should be omitted from the printed copies of the constitution; the conditions of separation laid down by Massachusetts were likewise to be omitted, but their validity was not to be affected thereby.

The only amendments now printed as an addition to the constitution are those adopted after 1875, but in the official copies in the Revised Statutes they are numbered not as a separate set, but as parts of a series which includes all earlier amendments.

Some of the changes in the constitution have been made with the purpose of increasing the power of the people by bringing it more directly to bear upon the government. In 1839 the terms of judicial officers were changed from good behavior to seven years, in 1855 judges and registers of probate and judges of municipal courts and sheriffs were made elective by the people; and the appointment of the land agent, the attorney-general and the adjutant-general was taken from the Governor and vested in the Legislature.¹ These changes, though of a democratic nature, only indirectly

¹In 1892 the appointment of the adjutant-general was restored to the governor, on the recommendation of Governor Burleigh, who urged that the commander-in-chief ought to have the right to nominate his own chief-of-staff.

increased the influence of the people on the government, but in 1908 the people adopted an amendment providing for the initiative and referendum.

Important restrictions have been placed on the power of the Legislature. In the thirties there was a wild enthusiasm for internal improvements, and many of the States assisted them and lost heavily by doing so. In 1841 an amendment to the constitution of Maine forbade the Legislature to loan the credit of the State directly or indirectly in any case, "or to increase the State debt beyond the sum of \$300,000 except to suppress insurrection, repel invasion or for purposes of war." Many came to feel that this limitation was a serious obstacle to the development of Maine, but no change was made until 1912, when the State was allowed to incur an additional debt not exceeding \$2,000,000 at any one time for the purpose of building and maintaining State highways, "the expenditure of said money to be divided equitably among the several counties of the State." In 1875 the Legislature was forbidden to "in any manner surrender or suspend the power of taxation." In the same year it was provided that "all taxes upon real and personal estate assessed by authority of this State, shall be apportioned and assessed equally, according to the just value thereof." But in 1913 the people adopted an amendment allowing the Legislature to tax intangible personal property "without regard to the rate applied to other classes of property."

Severe restrictions have been placed on the borrowing power of the municipalities. In the seventies the cities and towns suffered from an internal improvement fever similar to that which swept over the country in the thirties, and, as a guard against further misfortune of that kind, an amendment was adopted in 1877 forbidding any city or town to incur an aggregate of debt over 5 per cent. of its valuation. An exception was made of debts arising from the acceptance of trust funds, and of those incurred for war purposes, for renewing existing loans, and as temporary loans to anticipate the year's taxes. In 1911, cities having 40,000 inhabitants or more were allowed to gradually increase their debt to 7½ per cent. of the valuation.

Certain amendments have been passed which formerly at least would have been regarded as undemocratic. In 1879 the terms of the Governor, Senators, and Representatives were made two years, instead of one, and the regular sessions of the Legislature became biennial. The requirement of a majority in the elections of Representatives, Senators and Governor was changed to that of a plurality in 1847, 1875 and 1880 respectively. An amendment adopted in 1892 provided that no one should vote or hold office unless he could read the English language and write his name, but the amendment was not to apply to persons who were physically disabled from reading or writing, nor to persons having the right to vote, or of the age of sixty years or over, when the amendment took effect.

There have been minor amendments which need not be mentioned here, and a few of considerable importance which it is difficult to classify. In 1841 the number of Representatives was fixed at 151. An amendment of



UNITED STATES AND CUMBERLAND COUNTY COURT HOUSES, PORTLAND



CENTER PARK, BANGOR

1864 provided for the taking of votes of Maine soldiers, except those in the regular army, who were absent from the State. In 1884 the prohibitory amendment was adopted. In 1911 Augusta was declared the capital of the State. One amendment of great importance was defeated. In 1911 the Legislature submitted a proposition for woman's suffrage, but the people rejected it. The Australian ballot system was introduced by statute in 1891, later the caucus was regulated, and in 1911 primary nominations were introduced.

There have been a few changes in the subdivisions of the State. Perhaps the most important is the creation of cities. When Massachusetts extended her authority over Maine, she found four places with sufficient population to be given the privilege of representation in the General Court. When the District of Maine became the State of Maine, there were 236 towns; there are now 404. The last town established by the Legislature of Massachusetts was Etna; the first created by the State of Maine was Williamsburg. With the growth of population the larger towns felt the inconvenience of transacting business in the general assembly of the town meeting, and in 1832 Portland accepted a city charter, notwithstanding the opposition of the older and wealthier inhabitants, who feared that the new government would be extravagant and spend money much too freely on public works. Other towns from time to time followed the example of Portland, and the State now contains eighteen cities. Their names and dates of incorporation are:

Portland,	1832;	Lewiston,	1861;
Bangor,	1834;	(not organized until 1863)	
Bath,	1848;	Saco,	1867;
Augusta,	1849;	Auburn,	1869;
Calais,	1850;	Ellsworth	1869;
Hallowell,	1850;	Waterville,	1883;
Belfast,	1853;	Brewer,	1889;
Rockland,	1854;	Old Town,	1891;
Biddeford,	1855;	Eastport,	1893;
		South Portland,	1895.

The counties have undergone no very important change in functions, although their number has increased. The early counties, often separate provinces, into which the present State of Maine was divided, have already been mentioned. The county of Yorkshire, or York, to which in 1716 the Sagadahoc territory was annexed, remained undivided until 1760. For some thirty years, however, the including of all Maine within a single county had caused much inconvenience to the eastern inhabitants. In 1733 various towns authorized their selectmen to petition the General Court either to divide the county or to move the courts eastward, and the court so far granted their prayer as to direct that the inferior courts should hold one term a year at Falmouth. In 1760 Falmouth petitioned the General Court that Yorkshire be divided, and that Falmouth be made the shire town

of a new county. They set forth the hardship of being compelled to attend court at York for the trial of all important cases, and stated that they had already prepared a courthouse and a jail. But the proprietors of the Kennebec purchase promptly came forward and said that six years before they had petitioned that the eastern portion of Yorkshire be made a separate county, and that only the troubles with the Indians had prevented them from pursuing their application.

The court determined to grant both requests and two new counties were erected. The "easterly line of York county by the division passed along in the northeasterly exterior of Saco and Buxton; in the southwesterly line of Standish as it borders on the river Saco to the northwest corner of the town; and thence north two degrees west on a true course as far as the utmost limits of the province." The more western of the new counties was named Cumberland, after the English county of that name. Falmouth became the shire town. The second county extended from the eastern limits of Cumberland, which may be roughly described as the Androscoggin river, for thirty miles, "thence north two degrees to the northern boundary." The eastern boundary was the same as that of the State. The county was named Lincoln, and Pownalborough was made the shire town. The Kennebec Company erected county buildings at its own expense. To each new county were allowed two terms of the Inferior or Common Pleas Court, and to Cumberland, but not to Lincoln, one of the Superior Court.⁹

For thirty years no other counties were erected. Meantime the settlements had spread along the coast to the east, and the inhabitants were much inconvenienced by being so far removed from the seats of justice. Accordingly, on June 25, 1789, the Massachusetts Legislature took from Lincoln county the territory between the eastern side of Penobscot Bay and the St. Croix and from it carved two new counties, named Hancock and Washington, after the Governor of the State and the President of the United States. Hancock was the larger, having, according to the census of 1790, 9,549 inhabitants, while Washington had only 2,758. Apparently Massachusetts thought that on her own soil her Governor should take precedence of the President, a theory which it will be remembered Mr. Hancock unsuccessfully endeavored to maintain when Washington visited Massachusetts a few months later.

The next counties erected were the result of the spread of population into the interior. In 1799 the northern part of Lincoln was made the county of Kennebec, the first county to receive an Indian name. Augusta was made the shire town. In 1805 the upper parts of York and Cumberland became the county of Oxford, with Farmington as the shire town. In 1809, the push of settlers had rendered the erection of another county advisable, and the

⁹It became quite usual to deny a new county with only a small population a term of the highest court. But time and an increase in the number of the inhabitants always brought the desired privilege.

upper part of Kennebec was incorporated as the county of Somerset, with Norridgewock as the shire town. In 1816 the last Maine county created by Massachusetts was formed by the erection of northern Hancock into the county of Penobscot, with Bangor as the shire town.

The first county to be established by the State of Maine was taken chiefly from Lincoln, but with it was joined a slice of Hancock and a bit of Kennebec. Castine, the shire town of Hancock, was difficult of access from a large part of the county. Judge William Crosby, the father of Governor Crosby, says in his autobiography:

"During the session of the courts there, the shores and harbor exhibited the appearance of an Indian encampment. The judge and jurors, the parties and witnesses, the lawyers, sheriffs and subordinate officers, loafers and idlers, besides not an inconsiderable number of gentlemen spectators, all arrived in open row or sail boats. This great collection was from the scattering settlements of the islands, Frenchman's bay, the Penobscot river and its bay. Now you must not suppose that there was anything like fatigue or gloom or despondency in all this. Quite otherwise. It was a hearty, happy and merry meeting. Each had his story of disasters, hairbreadth escapes and ludicrous incidents. It was a hearty laugh, a good dinner and then to business. There were no old men: new countries have no old men. We were all young men—healthy, hearty, and in the full flow of joyous anticipation."

Apparently, however, all were not as good natured as Judge Crosby represents them to have been. In 1792 an attempt was made to have the courts moved to a more accessible place. In 1813 it was proposed to divide the county. The population of Castine fell off, that of Belfast largely increased, and repeated efforts were made to make the town a half shire. In 1827 numerous towns presented petitions to the Legislature begging that they might be formed into a new county to be called Knox, with Belfast and Warren as shire towns. The joint standing committee on the division of counties, to which the petition was referred, struck out Thomaston, Warren, and certain other towns in Lincoln county, and also the name of Knox, which was less appropriate now that Thomaston, the home of Knox, had been excluded from the operation of the bill. Belfast was made the shire town. The committee then voted without a division to report the bill. On motion of Representative R. C. Johnson, of Belfast, who had the bill in charge, the new county was given the name of Waldo, after General Samuel Waldo, who had owned most of the territory included in the proposed county.

In the debate Mr. Johnson spoke of the difficulty of crossing the bay at some seasons of the year, and said that once a whole term of court had been lost in consequence of the sloop in which the judge had taken passage becoming becalmed. "Mr. Abbott, of Castine," replied at considerable length.

²Afterward of Bangor. He became Mayor of the city, dying in office in 1849. In recognition of his interest in the cause of education, a lot which was used for school purposes for about sixty years was named Abbot Square.

He contended that the bay, instead of presenting an impediment to those who wished to pass from the western side to attend the courts at Castine, was actually a convenience. A packet was constantly running from Belfast, by which people could pass with less expense and trouble than if the bay was not there." He produced statistics to show that "out of one hundred and seventy days during which the courts were in session, there were but seven days in which the packet did not run, and, on one hundred and seventeen days, the packet passed twice a day or more."

Mr. Johnson rejoined with the undoubted truth "that people were constitutionally different in their feelings with respect to crossing water. To many persons it was always a serious inconvenience." The bill passed the House by a majority of 23 and the Senate without serious opposition.⁴

In 1838 two new counties were erected, Franklin and Piscataquis. The former lay in the western part of the State, and was taken from Oxford, Kennebec and Somerset. Farmington became the shire town. Piscataquis was taken from Somerset and Penobscot, the latter contributing the larger share. Dover was made the shire town.

Next year the northern parts of Penobscot and Washington were made the county of Aroostook. It had only about 9,000 inhabitants, but their distance from Bangor and Machias, and the lack of roads, made a county organization very convenient for them. There may also have been a financial reason for the law; the establishment of a new county would tend to attract settlers and increase the sale of the public lands. In the original bill the county was called Restook, but before its passage the name was changed to its present form. Houlton was made the shire town.

In 1854 two more counties were erected, Androscoggin and Sagadahoc. Androscoggin was taken from Cumberland, Oxford, Kennebec and Lincoln. There appears to have been only moderate opposition on the part of the amputated counties; the bill passed the House by a vote of 86 to 26, and the Senate by a vote of 19 to 6.

The erection of Sagadahoc, called King in the original bill, met with greater difficulty, the opposition coming chiefly from eastern Lincoln. In the House, Mr. Starr, of Thomaston, moved to indefinitely postpone the bill. He said that "one of the jewels of Lincoln county had been plucked from her brow in the establishment of Androscoggin county, and it was now proposed to rob her farther. He denied that the towns named in the bill, with the exception of Bath, had asked for the new county. It was wanted to accommodate persons who wished for office. These persons and the friends of these crowded the lobbies and exerted an influence which was counteracted by but few outsiders from Eastern Lincoln. He said the town of Richmond sent up delegates to oppose this bill, but the delegates were induced to betray their trust by the promise on the part of the Bath people that the county buildings would be furnished by the city. But yesterday the people of Richmond, having ascertained that they had been

⁴Williamson, "Belfast," 367-371.



POST OFFICE, AUGUSTA



COUNTY COURT HOUSE AND REGISTRY BUILDING, AUGUSTA

betrayed, got up a remonstrance signed by two hundred citizens, which he exhibited to the House." Mr. Starr said that he would be willing that at a proper time Lincoln should be divided, but divided differently, with the line of separation moved more to the east. He declared that if this bill should pass, eastern Lincoln would demand, and with better reason than Sagadahoc had, that it should be made a separate county, and that as a result county buildings would be erected in three different parts of the old county."

The House changed the name of the proposed county from King to Sagadahoc, and passed the bill. In the Senate, Mr. Farwell, of Rockland, moved that Rockland, Thomaston, and certain other towns in the counties of Lincoln and Waldo, be united to form the county of Knox, but the motion was lost. The bill for erecting the county of Sagadahoc was then passed, Mr. Farwell alone voting against it.

The formation of Knox county was, however, only postponed. In 1859 Ephraim K. Smart, the well-known Democratic politician, led a vigorous agitation for the incorporation of what he termed the limerock valley of Maine as the county of Knox, with Camden as its shire town. The people of Rockland were ardently in favor of the creation of the new county, but were decidedly of the opinion that their town should be the county seat. Camden was resolved not to give way and, though usually Republican, chose Mr. Smart as its Representative to the Legislature, believing that his ability and influence might get them the court house. He was, however, unable to secure the incorporation of the county that year. The next year it was duly established, but with Rockland as the shire town. Much feeling had been created. A Republican Legislature had cut down Waldo for the benefit of the new county, and the citizens of Belfast showed their displeasure by electing a Douglas Democrat, A. G. Jewett, mayor. The Democrats had hoped that local dissatisfaction and the Peck scandal might together give them the county, but 1860 was a presidential year, national issues were to the fore, and Waldo remained Republican.

The first Legislature of Maine met at Portland, but it was generally understood that the capital would not be permanently located there, although it was expected that the Legislature would sit at Portland for five or ten years. In 1821 a committee appointed to recommend a place for the meeting of the next Legislature, recommended Hallowell, on account of its central location, but a resolve providing that the next Legislature should meet at Hallowell failed to pass either House. The next year, Daniel Rose, Benjamin Green and John Chandler were appointed a committee "to visit such towns as they deem proper" and report a location for the capital. They visited Portland, Brunswick, Hallowell, Augusta, Waterville, Belfast and Wiscasset, each of which offered excellent sites free of cost. The committee reported that should the capital be located on the coast, "Wiscasset is entitled to a decided preference, on account of its more central situation, the facility with which it might be defended in case of invasion, and the

safe and easy access to it by water." The committee, however, recommended that Augusta be chosen as the capital, and that the State House be erected on Weston Hill. The Legislature voted that Augusta should be the capital, but that the Legislature should sit in Portland until 1830. When, however, a deed of Weston Hill was offered, the Legislature refused to accept it, and year after year the matter was debated, the Portland Representatives endeavoring to postpone a decision. During the debate, Mr. Ames, of Bath, stated that he favored Augusta because of "its being central as to territory, population and representation; it was a place where the public records and public offices might be kept in security in case of wars; it was a place where the business of legislation might be carried on with less embarrassment and more purity than in a larger town." By appealing to the hopes of various towns that each might become the capital, the friends of Portland prevented a definite settlement of the question in favor of Augusta. At last a resolve was passed by the Legislature and approved by the Governor, making Hallowell the next place of meeting. Portland now saw that her efforts for delay were likely to lose her the advantage of being the temporary capital, her representatives reversed their position, and a law was passed providing that Augusta should be the capital, but that the Legislature should sit in Portland until 1832.* James D. North says in his "History of Augusta," that Augusta was fixed upon with the unanimous consent of the county of Cumberland, which had been most strenuous in its opposition to the agitation of the question. The counties of York and Oxford strongly favored the decision, as did also Hancock and Washington. Kennebec was divided by the influence in favor of Hallowell; Somerset by the aspirations of Waterville, a place nearer to that county; and Lincoln by views favorable to Wiscasset, a town within her own borders." Penobscot opposed the settlement. She probably hoped for a great growth of eastern Maine and that, were the question postponed, she would win the prize. In 1837 Representative Shaw, of Orono, in urging a relocation of the capital at Portland, said: "It is not probable that the removal will be a permanent one, as Bangor before many years will enter a claim for the establishment of the seat of government within *her* limits, and this will be done with some justice, as unquestionably she will ere long be the center of population as she now is of territory."

Governor Lincoln and his Council visited Augusta and approved Weston Hill as a site for the State House, and the lot was duly conveyed to the State. The next year (1827) the Legislature ordered a certain amount of land to be sold to defray the expenses of building the State House, and a commissioner appointed to superintend the work. Governor Lincoln appointed ex-Governor King. On July 4, 1829, the corner stone was

*It is said that the management of John Holmes was an important factor, he trading votes on the location of the capital in exchange for support for his darling plan of making his own town of Alfred the seat of all the courts of York county.

Whig, Jan. 16, 1837.

laid with Masonic ceremonies. The building was designed by the architect of the Boston State House, Charles Bulfinch, who in great measure repeated his former plan. "It provided for a building of hammered granite, one hundred and fifty feet in length by fifty feet in width, with a projecting arcade and colonnade in front. The estimated cost was \$80,000." The land ordered to be sold by the Legislature brought only a trifle over \$60,000, while in 1830 the expenditure on the capitol had reached nearly \$87,000, and the commissioner, William Clark, of Hallowell,¹ who had been appointed by Governor Hunton to succeed General King, estimated that \$41,000 more would be necessary to complete the building and prepare the grounds.

There was much dissatisfaction in the State, and a sharp controversy arose between King and Clark as to the cause of the expense. The question of the location of the capital was re-opened, and various offers of money or buildings were made by citizens of Portland and by Daniel Williams of Augusta. The Legislature voted \$25,000 to finish the State House, provided that the inhabitants of Augusta would complete the work at their own expense if more than \$25,000 was needed. Should the condition be broken, the whole sum less any amount over \$25,000 actually expended, was to be forfeit, and any request for remuneration was to constitute a breach. A bond to fulfill these conditions was given by Daniel Cony and others, Reuel Williams was appointed commissioner, and the work was at last completed. The cost of the building and the furniture, alterations, repairs, and expenditures upon the grounds together with interest amounted to \$138,991.34. It was claimed that for \$11,466.75 of this the signers of the bond were liable, and in 1833 the Legislature ordered the State Treasurer to collect the bond. No action was taken, however, and in 1835 the subject was again discussed. A Portland Representative argued with great bitterness for the exaction of the penalty. He said that

"Augusta had received a great benefit from the location of the Capital. The value of real estate was raised, and every session of the Legislature brought a large amount of money into the town. The signers of the bond acted voluntarily, and it was too late for them to complain. They had pledged their faith never to be asked to be released from the bond. The location of the capital was the subject of great competition among many towns and it was this bond which gave the prize to Augusta, and now they come forward with the extraordinary request that the bond should be cancelled. Other towns offered similar bonds for the same prize, and it would be unjust to them to allow Augusta to obtain it for nothing. Augusta had deceived the Legislature quite enough in relation to the accommodation of members—the price of board being two or three dollars higher than in Portland. If the State was disposed to cancel bonds, a great many could be found in the Treasury which had far higher claims upon the leniency of the Legislature than the one before the House. The grantors of the lot upon which the State House was erected might come forward and claim remuneration with equal propriety."

¹In this appointment Mr. Hunton was paying a political debt, as he owed his nomination to Clark.

An Augusta Representative replied:

"Many of the signers were poor mechanics who were importuned to sign under the influence of great excitement, trusting to the magnanimity of the State, that the bond would never be enforced. Many of them had since become bankrupt and many had since died—the burden was left upon a few. Augusta had done much, had given the State House lot, worth more than two thousand dollars—had laid out a very expensive road for the accommodation of the Legislature, and sacrificed five or six thousand dollars in erecting a hotel. The bond did not stand upon the same footing with other bonds, it was not given for any valuable consideration.

"The exaction of the bond was unjust, it was exacted after the location of the capital had been fixed upon and after Augusta had incurred great expenses upon the faith of it."

These arguments prevailed, and the Legislature ordered the bonds to be cancelled.

But though Augusta had saved her \$111,000, a sum which Reuel Williams alone could have paid without serious inconvenience, the permanent location of the capital was still uncertain. The West and the East, Portland and Bangor, seemed ready to deprive her of her prize. The Bangor *Republican* had stated that it hoped that the capital would be moved to Portland, that Augusta was not large enough to accommodate the Legislature and citizens who visited the town for business or pleasure. Even if the public property at Augusta should be a total loss, the State in that case would be paying comparatively less for experience than individuals are frequently obliged to pay. It would teach our representatives the folly and indiscretion of resorting in the disposition of questions of such importance, to the *quid pro quo* system. Representative Allen of Bangor said: "If a strong and united voice of disapprobation of the present location expressed by his constituents before the corner-stone of this building was placed and reiterated to the present time constituted instruction, he felt that he had been instructed with a vengeance."

In 1837 a vigorous effort was made to transfer the capital to Portland. It failed, but if Augusta had won, her opponents were ever ready to renew the battle, and for seventy-five years attempts were continually made to move the capital. The chief objection to Augusta was the price of board. Accommodations which were necessary for the Legislature and others visiting the capital during the session far exceeded the needs of the town at other seasons of the year, and hotels and boarding houses were obliged to require the unhappy Solons pay not only for what they received but enough to make up to their hosts the deficit of the lean months. When the Legislators felt that they were being bled beyond all reason by their wicked landlords a movement would be started to change the capital and the frightened monopolists would make concessions. In 1907 a combination of Augusta capitalists, with Mr. C. S. Hichborn at their head, bought the principal hotel, the Augusta House, and rebuilt and enlarged it, not with a view to profit but to satisfy the Legislators and help keep the capital at Augusta.

The State House itself, expensive as it was and designed by the best architect in America, gave much dissatisfaction. The most frequent complaint was of the smallness of the Hall of Representatives. It was said that the seats were not made to fit Maine's big, well-fed farmers, that they were suitable only for half-starved lawyers. Nevertheless, no important changes were made in the State House for many years. But in 1890 an addition was made, and in 1910 two wings were built which harmonized with the old structure and added greatly to the impressiveness and usefulness of the building.

In 1822 Governor Parris called the attention of the Legislature to the crowded condition of the jails and the need of a State Prison, and expressed a belief that a system of solitary confinement was the best means both of deterring from crime and of procuring repentance and reformation. The Legislature directed the Governor to appoint a commission of three to consider and report on the best method of dealing with convicts, and the establishment of a State Prison. The committee duly reported; Thomaston was selected as the place of location, a ten-acre lot, including a fine quarry of limestone was bought of ex-Governor King, and a contract was made with certain Massachusetts parties to erect the building as far as the eaves; other contracts were made, and by July, 1824, the buildings were ready for use.

Both the prison itself and its management have caused the State much trouble and expense. The prison had been built in accordance with the separate and silent theory of convict management. The cells were not over five feet wide and nine feet long; the only opening was a grated door-window in the top, and a ladder was necessary for entrance and exit. These "stone jugs," as they had been called, were quite unfit for human habitation, and in 1843 the Legislature directed that a new building be erected. It followed the general plan of the prison at Auburn, New York, having three "tiers of cells, one above another, substantially built of stone, entered by iron doors of open grates, secured by an iron bar running the whole length of each tier and simultaneously bolted."

With the increase of the number of the convicts and the development of the science of penology, new buildings have been added from time to time and old ones remodelled.

The financial management of the prison has often been extremely unsatisfactory. The first warden lacked system and skill in keeping accounts and, without evil intent, mingled his private and official expenses. Later an agent for selling granite absconded with about \$10,000; another agent claiming that he had been unfairly treated refused to pay his notes, and involved the prison in a very expensive law suit. In 1858 the Legislature authorized Governor Lot M. Morrill to appoint a person to investigate the reasons why the prison did not pay for itself and if possible to propose a remedy. Governor Morrill appointed James G. Blaine. "His report made a most interesting exposure of bad management, wastefulness and cooked accounts. He

showed that, when the annual inventory of stock and materials was made in the spring, one set of values was entered, but quite another when the annual balance sheet was made up for the report to the Legislature.

. . . Mr. Blaine showed that this practice had been going on for years, and that the system of diverse appraisement extended to everything,—farm tools, flour, material for manufacture, and manufactured goods. The report made a sensation in the State, and led to a change of wardens and a reform in the management of the prison.”

The work of the convicts has varied. Originally the men were employed in the limestone quarry. The demand for limestone was limited, the number of convicts increased, and most of them were set to working granite, of which there is a large supply near the prison. They were also engaged in the manufacture of lime, in wheelwright, blacksmith and cooper’s work, and in the making of shoes. It was said of one of the Maine regiments in the Civil War that the best part of the outfit of the men was the excellent shoes which were made in the State Prison. In the early eighties, however, it was found that the manufacture of shoes was being carried on at a loss, the work was discontinued, and the number of carriages made in the prison was increased. With the coming of the automobile, the demand for carriages has fallen off and more attention has been given to the making of harnesses in which the prison has acquired an excellent reputation.

In the past forty years there has been much complaint of the competition of convict labor. In 1887 Governor Bodwell suggested that it might be well to diversify the prison labor, and the Legislature passed a law directing that not over twenty per cent. of the male prisoners be employed in any one industry, but that the prohibition should not apply to the manufacture of goods not produced in the State at the time the bill should go into effect, that is, on January 1, 1888.

Very early in the history of the State Prison, attention was called to the evil result of mixing young first offenders with old and hardened criminals, but nothing of importance was done to remedy the evil until 1850. It was known that the city of Portland would give land for a Reform School for boys, and the Legislature directed the Governor to appoint three commissioners, with power at their discretion, to accept a site for a reform school for boys, erect buildings and establish rules for the management of the school. Governor Hubbard appointed ex-Governors Anderson and Dana, and Henry Carter, editor of the *Portland Advertiser*, who had been chairman of the committee of the Legislature which had recommended the foundation of the school. A lot at Cape Elizabeth was selected and was presented to the State by the city of Portland. Buildings were erected thereon and the school duly opened. Much amusement was caused by the announcement that the first boys committed to the institution bore the names of George Washington and Daniel Webster. The school made considerable

³Stanwood, “Blaine,” 46-47.

demands on the public treasury, and there was some dissatisfaction, there being a widespread feeling that the people of Portland and the neighboring towns were getting their wayward youth cared for at the expense of the State. The institution was maintained, however, and has done much good. In 1903 the name was changed to that of State School for Boys, the cottage system has been introduced and developed, and the school is regarded rather as a collection of homes for unfortunate youth than a place of detention and punishment.

Objection has been made not only to the confinement of boys in the State Prison, but to that of women as well, and in 1915 the Legislature provided for a Woman's Reformatory at Skowhegan, to which all females over sixteen convicted of crime should be removed. Younger females are committed to the Industrial School for Girls at Hallowell. This school, a sort of counterpart of the Reform School, was originally a private philanthropic institution assisted by the State. In 1871 the Legislature provided for a commission to devise a plan for an industrial school for girls on the family system and receive proposals from towns who might make offers to secure the location of the school within their limits. There had been much competition for the State House and the State Prison, and Portland had given the land for the Reform School, but no offers were received for the location of a school for girls of doubtful character or worse. But in 1874 two philanthropic ladies of Hallowell, Mrs. Mary H. Flagg and Mrs. Almira C. Dummer, offered to give \$5,000 each for such a school, and Abner Coburn promised to give \$2,500 more. The State then promised to give, when these pledges were met, an equal sum, and the school was duly opened. The State was frequently called upon for aid, which it gave from time to time, but in 1879 it required as a condition of its grant that the entire immediate management of the school under the board of managers should be placed in the hands of females; in 1899 it demanded that the institution and its property be transferred to the State, and accordingly the school became a purely State institution.

Maine has furnished homes and care for unfortunates for whose relief private charity was insufficient. As early as 1824 the Legislature authorized the Governor, in his discretion, to expend \$1,500 for the establishment and maintenance of a school for the deaf and dumb, but the Governor, finding that the sum would be insufficient, took no action. In 1825, \$1,000 a year for four years was appropriated to pay for the education of deaf and dumb pupils at the American Asylum at Hartford or elsewhere, and due notice of the opportunity was given by the Governor. The offer was met with surprising indifference. Only a few of the two hundred persons officially reported as deaf and dumb made the necessary application. Of these, nine were selected as proper subjects for education and were sent to the American Asylum. In 1834 the benevolence of the State was extended to the blind, and six persons were sent to the New England Asylum for the Blind at Boston. The State has continued to give assistance to these unfortunate

classes. In 1897 it adopted as a State institution the Maine School for the Deaf, which had been established at Portland in 1876. Maine now allows a "benefit" not exceeding \$200 a year to the adult blind who are without means of obtaining an income of \$300 a year. Applications are passed on by the Governor and Council. The State has also established sanatoriums for consumptives at Hebron and Fairfield.

In 1866 an asylum for the orphans or half orphans of the soldiers and sailors of the Civil War was established at Bath. It has received much assistance from the State and is now regarded as a State institution. Four of the trustees are appointed by the Governor and three by the corporation. Pensions not exceeding \$8 a month are paid to Maine soldiers of the Civil and Spanish wars and the Philippine insurrection, who have been disabled as a consequence of service, and from their own resources and the United States pension are unable to obtain a livelihood for themselves and their dependents. Their dependents are also pensionable but not more than \$8 a month may be paid to one family. Indigent soldiers of the "Aroostook War" are allowed a pension of \$4 a month. Veterans of the Civil War who have been in the service of the State or the Augusta State Hospital for twenty-five consecutive years and who are incapacitated for further duty may on recommendation of the heads of their departments or of the board of trustees and the approval of the Governor and Council receive a retirement pay equal to half their salary.

Although the first persons other than paupers to obtain aid from Maine were the deaf and dumb, the first to be received into a philanthropic institution established by the State were the insane. In 1830 Governor Hunton suggested that provision be made for these unfortunates and hinted that an institution should be established. In 1834 Governor Dunlap advised the endowment of a lunatic hospital, or the "making an appropriation in aid of those who may seek the benefit of such institutions." The Legislature voted \$20,000 for the establishment of a hospital, on condition that an equal sum was contributed by private persons within a year. Ten months went by without response, but before the year expired, Reuel Williams of Augusta gave \$10,000 in money, and Benjamin Brown of Vassalborough presented an equal amount in land and notes. An excellent hospital was duly built, the State making liberal additional contributions, and in 1840 patients began to be received. Ten years later, on December 4, 1850, a fire due to defective heating arrangements suddenly broke out in the early morning, sufficient provision had not been made for the fire engines obtaining water, and as a result the lives of an attendant and twenty-seven patients were lost. The interior of the south wings and a considerable part of the woodwork and the roof of the main building were destroyed. The Legislature appropriated \$25,000 for rebuilding, and entrusted the laying out of the money to the committee on the establishment of a Reform School. The grant proved insufficient, but the Legislature voted \$24,000 more for completing the building and purchasing furniture. New buildings have been erected from time

to time. In 1895 a majority of the legislative committees on finance and on the Insane Hospital, acting together, reported in favor of the appropriation of \$150,000 for the erection of a new hospital at Bangor, a minority recommended the appropriation of \$110,000 for new buildings at Augusta. The Legislature adopted the views of the majority but further appropriations were necessary, later Legislatures were slow to make them, and the hospital was not opened for patients until July 3, 1901.

At the time of the admission of Maine into the Union, the militia was the folk in arms and was regarded as the true defense of a free republican State. Accordingly, on June 28, 1820, the Legislature passed a law making men who had attained the age of eighteen and had not reached that of forty-five liable to military duty, but persons exempted by the laws of the United States, officers who had held commissions in the militia for five years, clergymen, Quakers and Shakers were not obliged to serve. Exemption was also given to officers who had served as such for less than five years and had been honorably discharged, or who had served in the United States army or navy or in the militia of other States. Teachers, students of academies, colleges, and seminaries, physicians and surgeons and numerous State officers, including justices of the peace, were also exempt. But many of the exempts were obliged to pay a commutation of six dollars a year. Men between the ages of forty and forty-five were not held to any peace duty except that of keeping the arms and equipments required by the laws of the United States and carrying or sending them to the place of inspection. They were obliged, however, to pay \$1.00 a year as commutation for training. All exemption money was to be paid into the State treasury and form a fund for arming, equipping and uniforming the militia. The law was much like that in force in Massachusetts at the time of the separation.

In 1823 exemption from drill was granted to firemen duly assigned to engines in the several towns by the selectmen, provided the number so appointed did not exceed sixteen to each engine. The selectmen of Portland, however, were allowed to appoint thirty for the engine called the Cataract. But no existing company was to be reduced by the exemption below a strength of privates of forty-eight effective men.

In 1824 a law was passed providing that when a company from any town attended a review the town should furnish each man one pound of meat, one pound of bread and one gill of spirit, "said meat to be properly cooked and fit for the wholesome subsistence of the troops." The towns, however, were given the privilege of commuting the rations by a payment of twenty cents to each man.

There was much public excitement over the question of the militia and much dissatisfaction, and many petitions were presented to the Legislature of 1825 asking for a revision of the system. The *Kennebec Journal*, in an article of January 15, 1825, said that it believed that it was neglect in executing the laws more than any defect in the laws themselves which had brought the militia into disrepute. There was need of competent officers,

and if they would not serve for the honor of the post then the State should pay them.

The *Journal* also pointed out the uselessness and hardship of the reviews as then conducted. It said: "To call men together, merely to answer to their names and be laughed at for their awkwardness, is worse than ridiculous; it is highly reprehensible and serves to bring the system into such contempt that many choose to pay their fines rather than be seen in the ranks." The *Journal* thought it must be obvious that no militia law could be of much use where individuals could escape by paying a fine of a dollar or two. "Such a law is only a net to catch the weaker fish, the large ones break through its meshes; and thus the system will be rendered both useless and oppressive."

In the debate on the subject in the Legislature, Representative Chase of Livermore spoke of the hardship of allowing nothing for the time spent in preparing for trainings and nothing for the time wasted in getting over the effects of them. The bill before the House provided for an annual company inspection and a review by companies, battalions or regiments once in three years. General Fessenden said that the bill was predicated on the theory that the militia was useless and that he would go farther and do away with it entirely. Accordingly, he moved to strike out the provision for reviews but his amendment was defeated and another was passed providing for annual reviews.

An attempt was made to require the towns to furnish money instead of rations but it failed from the fear that some of the soldiers were not to be trusted. One Representative said that many of the soldiers would rather have twenty-five cents to spend for rum than fifty cents worth of good provisions. The militia were to be called out for inspections and discipline on the third Monday in September, and all other inspections and reviews were to be dispensed with. The bill passed the House but the Senate amended it by increasing the number of trainings. The House declined to accept the amendment. At last a law was agreed on providing for one inspection, one drill and one review a year. No non-commissioned officer or private was to be required to perform any other duty except attending the election of officers, unless in time of war or public danger.

The burden of general service rendered the militia extremely unpopular and notwithstanding the urgency of most of the Governors in its behalf the laws were continually relaxed. In 1829 the act compelling the non-commissioned officers and privates to show that they were provided with balls and cartridges, and requiring a personal examination of the military stores in the towns and plantations was repealed. In 1832 the exemption from drill of men who had reached the age of forty was extended to those who had attained that of thirty-five.

In 1843 Governor Fairfield said of the militia: "It is gratifying to perceive that an awakened spirit has manifested itself in regard to this truly republican institution in some parts of the State. I cherish the hope that

this spirit may spread until all shall more fully appreciate the importance of a citizen-soldiery, and lend their efforts not to ridicule and destroy it, but to maintain its honor and promote its efficiency and usefulness." The Governor's hopes, however, appear to have been ill-grounded, for in the following year the Legislature provided that, except in times of public danger, the enrolled militia should be subject to no active duty whatever other than the choice of officers.

In 1848 the Legislature directed the assessors to furnish each year a list of the persons within their jurisdiction who were liable to enrollment, but the law was poorly obeyed.

Beside the enrolled militia there were volunteer companies or companies at large, some of which were older than the State. Certain of these companies maintained their organization after the practical disbanding of the enrolled militia and they received some supervision and a little encouragement from the government. The Crimean war stimulated military interest and new companies were organized. But much of the best public opinion was hostile to the militia. Major Gould says in his history of the First, Tenth and Twenty-ninth Maine Infantry Regiment, "Public opinion was united in condemning the old militia system as a public nuisance; and to join a 'military company,' of which there were only about twenty in the State, was almost as wrong to many minds, as to neglect business, get drunk, or run in debt. One word before we drop these old organizations. The public had some good grounds for its opinions. It cost too much money to belong to a company, and the influence of a few members who were wanting in good character was not overbalanced by the influence of the better ones; we had come to believe in Maine that war was impossible; that the 'spirit of '76' or some magical influence would cause the nation to rise as one man and overwhelm our enemies should we ever have any, and so we thought that every dollar paid to the militia was a dollar thrown away."

The part played by the militia at the outbreak of the Civil War has been noticed in another chapter.

Adjutant-General Hodsdon was most anxious for the re-establishment of something like the old general service, and in 1865 a law was passed providing for an elaborate organization of the militia with regular inspections and drills for men between the ages of eighteen and twenty-four. The expense would have been great, it was expected that the general government would organize and pay a national militia, and Governor Chamberlain, taking advantage of what might be considered as a discretion allowed by the law, refrained from organizing the militia under it. But he repeatedly urged that something be done for the volunteer companies. The Legislature of 1869 authorized the equipment of not over ten companies by the State. expense would have been great, it was expected that the general government

¹Gould, "First, Tenth, Twenty-ninth Maine," 17, 18.

Perham in his message of 1871 announced that the organization of the companies had been completed, that they were largely composed of men who had seen active service and that they could easily be expanded to ten regiments if necessary. In 1872 the Legislature authorized the raising of ten companies of cadets composed of boys under military age. Only a few of these companies were raised and all were connected with schools or colleges. In 1874 a general muster was held at Portland and thereafter musters were usually held each year. In 1889 the old Camp Keyes at Augusta, which had been used as a place of encampment in the Civil War was purchased for a permanent muster field.

For some time there was in addition to the nominal "enrolled militia" and the active or "volunteer militia," a "reserve militia." They enlisted not for five years like the volunteer militia," but for only two. They were furnished with arms and equipment but the State assumed no other expense.

When the United States provided for further national assistance to the militia under the name of the National Guard, Maine passed the necessary legislation. The work of the Guard in the war with Spain has already been noticed.

In 1910 the First Regiment of Infantry was replaced by one of coast artillery. In 1916 the Second Regiment was sent to the Mexican border and did creditable work. When the United States entered the great war to make the world safe for democracy, this regiment was joined with one from New Hampshire to form the 103rd United States Infantry. Maine has not the honor of having the brave deeds of her sons officially joined with the name of the State, the exigencies of war today forbid it, but she knows that the heroes who followed Chaplin in the fatal charge of the First Maine Heavy Artillery at Petersburg have found worthy successors in the men who fought the Huns on the fields of France.

The first courts in Maine were informal ones established by the settlers themselves and having no authority save from general assent and the necessity of the case. The first legal tribunal was the commission of seven established by William Gorges in 1636. "Actions of trespass, slander, incontinency, for drunkenness, and 'rash speeches,' occurred frequently, and were generally determined by the intervention of a jury of six or more persons."¹⁰ On March 25, 1636, only four days after the assembling of the commission it was called on to deal with the first of Maine's many liquor cases. The records state that the "officer for this place" (Saco) presented four men for being drunk and they were all fined 5s. 8d. One of them, John Wotton, was also convicted of giving ill terms to the officer. This was evidently considered a much more serious offense than simple drunkenness and the court determined to take advantage of Wotton's misconduct to obtain further means of enforcing the laws. Accordingly, he was ordered

¹⁰The term of enlistment for the volunteer militia was subsequently reduced to three years.

¹¹Willis, "Law, Courts and Lawyers of Maine," 13.

to make a pair of stocks or to pay an additional fine of 40s. 8d. When Cleeve became deputy president of Lygonia by appointment of Rigby, he also established a court consisting apparently of himself, Henry Josselyn and Robert Jordan.

After Massachusetts took control her judicial system was transferred to Maine. The highest court, called the court of magistrates, was composed of the Governor and Deputy Governor and eighteen²² assistants, also called magistrates or councillors. In each county there was a court consisting of a magistrate residing in the county or a commissioner, as the General Court should designate, and four associates chosen by the freemen of the county and approved by the General Court. Three constituted a quorum, provided that the magistrate or commissioner were one of them. In Maine the court held sessions twice a year. These county courts "had jurisdiction of probate matters, of all causes civil above 40s., all criminal cases not capital and others not reserved to the court of 'assistants.'" The lowest court was held by a magistrate without a jury. It tried civil causes when the sum involved was not over 40 shillings, and might also inflict fines to a like amount. In towns where there was no resident magistrate the court of assistants or the county court might appoint three commissioners to try these causes. After the purchase of Gorges's rights Maine was organized as a dependent province with a president, council and house of deputies. The eight councillors were to be magistrates throughout the province and together were to act as a supreme court.

The county of Devonshire had a court similar to that of York except that because of the small amount of business transacted and its remote situation it was provided that "the county court be holden by such men of worth as might be commissioned, though neither be an assistant." The county of Cornwall had simple courts established for it by the government of New York.

The Massachusetts Legislature established by the charter of 1691 created various courts. "They were the justices of the peace for the trial of small causes, the Quarter Sessions held by the justices of the peace for the county, corresponding to our courts of county commissioners; the Inferior Court of Common Pleas; the Superior Court; and . . . a Court of Chancery. The last, however, was disallowed by the home government, and never went into effect. The Governor and Council were by the charter made a Court of Probate; a Court of Admiralty was also established by the Crown." The highest or Superior Court "held two sessions a year in the principal counties, but the trials of causes arising in Maine, which formed but one county till 1760, were held in Boston or Charlestown. It was not until 1799 that a term was granted to this State, which was held at Kittery until 1743 when it was removed to York."²³ The name of the

²²For the thirty years before 1660 only fourteen were chosen.

²³Willis, "Law, Courts and Lawyers of Maine," 38, 39.

Court was changed to that of Supreme Judicial Court in 1780 but no other change was made until 1800. The increase of business had greatly delayed the determination of suits and to correct this evil experiments were made of dividing the court. In 1805 the Legislature introduced a full *nisi prius* system by which one or more judges might try the cases and three or more judges might sit as a law court.

In each county there was an Inferior Court consisting of a chief justice and three associates and this court remained without change until 1811 except that in 1804 its number was reduced to three. In 1811 Governor Gerry and the Jeffersonians being in control the Inferior Courts were abolished and similar courts were established for each of six districts into which the State was divided. The lowest courts were formed of the justices of the peace in each county. They had their clerks and officers, and power to summon juries, and establish rules of practice. They also had the power of "laying out highways, superintending houses of correction, granting licenses to inn holders and retailers, and the charge of the financial and prudential affairs of their several counties, in addition to such jurisdiction in criminal matters as related to the conservation of the peace." Little change was made in the powers of these courts until 1804, when their judicial duties were transferred to the courts of common pleas. The organization of the lowest courts was changed repeatedly in the next few years. At the time of the separation of Maine the court of sessions, as it was called, consisted of a chief justice and two associate justices for each county. The Maine Legislature of 1821 provided that the court should consist of a chief justice and not more than four nor less than two associate justices. In 1825 the number of associates was reduced to two. In 1831 the powers of these "courts" were transferred to three county commissioners in each county to be appointed by the Governor and Council for a term of three years. In 1842 the choice of commissioners was transferred to the people of the several counties.

One of the earliest acts of the first Legislature of Maine was to begin the creation of a judicial system. Governor King in his first message recommended to the early attention of the Legislature the establishment of a supreme court, reminded them of the great part played by the courts and warned them against parsimony in dealing with so grave a matter. He said: "It is highly important to the people themselves that such adequate compensation should be assigned to our first judicial officers as shall command the service of men of unquestioned integrity, possessing the first intelligence and unquestioned legal attainments." The Legislature replied by promptly passing a law for the establishment of a supreme court to consist of a chief justice and two associates. The salaries were fixed at \$1,800 for the chief justice and \$1,500 for each associate. Governor King appointed Prentiss Mellen chief justice, and Nathan Weston and William Pitt Preble associate justices.

On February 9, 1822, a court of common pleas, consisting of a chief

justice and two associates, was established with jurisdiction throughout the whole State. Heretofore, common pleas judges had been paid by receiving part of the fees of the court but now they were assigned salaries of \$1,200 each. Governor Parris appointed Ezekiel Whitman of Portland, chief justice; and Samuel E. Smith of Wiscasset, and David Perham of Bangor, associate justices.

With the increase of population and business in the State the judges were unable to dispose of suits promptly and the dockets became seriously congested. Governor Dunlap in his message of 1837 spoke of the evils of delay in deciding cases and of the accumulation of suits and said that persons who were conversant with the conditions believed an increase of judges indispensable. The Governor thought that it might be sufficient to increase the number of the Supreme Court judges by one or two and relieve them from trying criminal cases except such as were capital. The Governor also spoke of a proposed change in the organization of the Common Pleas but said that he thought it might involve difficulties which would be greater than those found in the working of the existing system. He suggested that it might be well to enlarge the court and assign one judge to each county, grading the salary according to the amount of business done.

In 1838 Governor Kent recommended an increase of justices. In 1839 Governor Fairfield recommended that at least one more judge be added to the Supreme Court and another to the Court of Common Pleas "if you should deem it expedient to permit the present system to remain unchanged." This, however, the Legislature did not think it wise to do. Yet the change they made was slight. A bill was introduced in the House abolishing the Court of Common Pleas and establishing district courts in its place. The State was to be divided into three districts, an eastern, a middle and a western. For the western district there were to be two judges, for each of the others, one. The debate on the bill showed that its friends were chiefly moved by dissatisfaction with the personnel of the court. Representative Otis said that it was a bill to abolish not the court but the judges. Representative Vose said that the bill ought to be entitled a bill to get rid of Judge Perham, that he was opposed to doing indirectly what he was afraid or unwilling to do directly. He wished gentlemen to take up the question on its simple merits. Mr. Appleton of Bangor, later Chief Justice of Maine for over thirty years, said that there was a constitutional mode of removing the difficulties complained of and that he was opposed to changing the whole judicial system for the purpose of unseating one obnoxious judge. Representative Allen of Bangor, who had the bill in charge, did not deny that it was aimed at Judge Perham, but he said that the evils under the present administration of the court were not the only argument in favor of the bill and contended that the confining of the judges to definite districts would make them more directly responsible and induce them to perform their duties better.

The bill was amended by reducing the compensation of the judges from

\$1,500 to \$1,200 and was then passed. Ezekiel Whitman, the highly respected Chief Justice of the Common Pleas, was made Chief Justice of the new court.

No change was made in the organization of the Supreme Court and in 1840 Governor Fairfield renewed his recommendation of 1839 for an additional justice, saying: "The experience of another year has only tended to fortify and confirm the reasons then advanced." Nothing was done at the time, but in 1847 the court was given an additional judge.

In 1852 a most important change was made in the judicial organization of the State. The intermediate court which under different names had endured for one hundred and fifty years was abolished and its powers and duties transferred to the Supreme Court, which was now given three more judges. The State was divided into three districts and the court was required to sit at least once a year in each.

The bill was drawn by John Appleton, a leading lawyer and chairman of a commission appointed by the Legislature to examine and report upon the subject. Mr. Appleton had long been convinced that the old system of an intermediate court gave undue facilities for appeal, protracted litigation and did much harm. At the close of his life, looking back over more than thirty years of judicial experience, he pronounced the change highly beneficial.

Mr. Willis, writing a few years after the passage of the law took a very different view. He says in his "Law, Courts and Lawyers of Maine," "The effect of this system has been to clog the machinery of this tribunal (the Supreme Court) with petty causes of little value or consequence, but which occupy as much time as those involving high principles and large values; and by occupying the time of the court, has deprived it of that leisure for research and deliberation which is needed to give it a high intellectual character, and confidence in its legal decisions; and by lowering the standard of legal attainment, has had a tendency to impair the authority of its judgments, and the reliance which is due to the tribunal of final resort."⁴⁴

Formerly a judge had been allowed to sit on the hearing of an appeal against his own decision. This was now strictly forbidden. In discussing this matter in his report Mr. Appleton said: "For these and other reasons, many have deemed it so important that the law court should be distinct from the court by which jury causes are tried, that they have advised a separate court whose exclusive and only duty should be to decide upon all questions of law, which might arise at *nisi prius*, requiring adjudication." The commissioners, however, believed so radical a change unnecessary.

But a few years later Maine determined to make the experiment. In 1855 the subject of reorganizing the courts was referred to the House committee of the judiciary. They reported that they were so much burdened with other business that they could not give the subject the attention

⁴⁴Willis, "Law, Courts and Lawyers of Maine," 43.

it demanded and proposed that it be referred to a commission consisting of ex-Governor Kent, ex-Judge Wells and John Abbot.

Objection was made by Mr. Hill of Bangor that the proposed commissioners were all in favor of a change. It was accordingly decided to appoint a select joint committee of the Senate and House to nominate the commission. They presented the names of Edward Kent, Lot M. Morrill and Edward Rand, and these gentlemen were duly appointed by the Legislature.

Each reported a different plan. Mr. Rand wished to revive the old court of common pleas. Messrs. Morrill and Kent proposed to divide the Supreme Court into a law and a *nisi prius* division, but Mr. Kent wished the law court to consist of the chief justice and two associate justices, the associates to be furnished by the full bench in turn. Mr. Morrill proposed that the law court consist of the chief justice and three associate justices to be designated by the Governor and Council, or when a vacancy occurred appointed by them in the manner required by the constitution, and the chief justice was to detail one of them when necessary to sit at *nisi prius* trials. Mr. Rand's plan met with slight favor, the House adopted Mr. Kent's, the Senate Mr. Morrill's, and the House gave way. On motion of Mr. Ingersoll of Bangor provision was made for an additional term of the law court to be held at Augusta at which any case pending in any county and ready for hearing might be heard if both parties consented. The number of the judges of the Supreme Court was increased by one.

This bi-section of the court, however, appears not to have given satisfaction and in 1856 the provision for a law court was repealed except that a full term of the whole court for determining questions of law was to be held annually at Augusta. With the increase of population and business in the State the disadvantages of making the Supreme Court a court of first instance increased and in 1868 a Superior Court was established for the county of Cumberland. Similar courts were given to Kennebec, Androscoggin and Penobscot counties in 1878, 1917 and 1919, respectively. One was also created for Aroostook in 1885, but the law was repealed in 1893. In 1901 it was provided that for the purposes of the law court the State should constitute a single district, that there should be meetings each year at Augusta, Bangor and Portland. The increase of business has also increased the work of the law court and it now has three annual sittings at Augusta, Bangor and Portland, respectively, and at least two sittings a year at times and places fixed by the Chief Justice to hear and determine all undecided cases.

Like other States, Maine has had no special court of chancery and has been slow in conferring equity powers on the courts of common law. A strictly limited authority like that given in Massachusetts was granted in 1821 and 1822. In 1830 the Legislature provided that "in all cases of fraud, trust, accident or mistake, where there is not a plain, adequate and sufficient remedy by the rules of the common law, the justices of the

Supreme Judicial Court may administer relief according to the course of Courts of Equity." In 1837 the equity powers of the court were extended where necessary to cases of nuisances and partnerships. In 1874 the court was given equity powers in all cases where there was no plain, adequate and complete remedy at common law. In 1881 an act was passed simplifying proceedings in equity, the principal change being that power of final action in equity matters was given to the single judges; formerly this had been possessed by the full court only. The passage of the acts of 1874 and 1881 were largely due to the efforts of Mr. (later Chief Justice) L. A. Emery.

The progress of democratic opinions has resulted in the limitation of the tenure of the judicial office. The constitution of the State as originally adopted gave the judges a tenure for life or until they reached the age of seventy. Governor Dunlap, the first thoroughgoing Democratic Governor Maine had, in his message of 1837, suggested a further limit of the terms of the judges, saying that he could not see the consistency of the constitution in this matter, that in other parts it made public officers responsible to the people but in relation to the judiciary it was founded upon the apparently opposite principle of placing the judicial officers above all direct accountability, as the sure guarantee not only of integrity of purpose but of that industry in the investigation of cases and application to legal study without which the duties of the station can be but indifferently performed." Such a recommendation could hardly fail to meet with popular favor and the Legislature promptly submitted and the people ratified an amendment to the Constitution making the terms of all judges seven years. The Whigs, or the more conservative of them, doubtless disapproved the change, but they seem to have thought it prudent not to offer a very active opposition. Perhaps they feared that this might provoke the Democrats into making the judiciary elective instead of appointive.

Though the progress of Democracy has cut down the terms of the judges it has not prevented a gradual increase in their compensation made necessary by economic and social changes. On the establishment of the Supreme Court the chief justice was given a salary of \$1,800 a year and the associates \$1,500. In 1834 the salary of the chief was reduced to \$1,600 and those of the associates raised to that amount. In 1836 the salaries were increased to \$1,800 a year and in 1866 to \$2,500. In 1870 the judges were allowed their board and necessary travelling expenses when performing their duties away from home but no judge was to receive over \$300 a year under this law. In 1874 the salaries were raised to \$3,000 a year but the allowance for expenses was abolished. In 1887 the salary was made \$3,500 a year, in 1901 \$4,000, and in 1903, \$5,000. The judges are also allowed their reasonable expenses when attending special meetings or the law court, or trying cases at *nisi prius* outside their county. In 1909 an act was passed allowing judges who had reached the age of seventy-five and who had served ten years, to retire on a pension equal to half their

salary but in 1911 it was provided that unless the judge availed himself of this privilege within a year he should forfeit it.

Maine has given her common law courts chancery powers but probate matters have been confided to special courts. In 1821 probate courts were created and have since been maintained. The probate judges like the other judges had their terms shortened to seven years in 1839, and in 1855 the terms were reduced to four years and the office as well as that of register of probate was made elective. The probate judges have also been given jurisdiction in matters of insolvency.

The provision for petty courts has varied considerably. For some years after the separation of Maine their work was done partly by the court of common pleas and partly by the justices of the peace. In 1825 a municipal court was established for the town of Portland, and various courts of this nature, sometimes called municipal and sometimes police courts, have been created from time to time for the more populous places.

In 1844 provision was made for the appointment of trial justices in the various localities, saving the rights of the municipal courts of Portland and Bangor, and other laws on the subject were passed later, but in 1857 all such laws were repealed. In 1860, however, provision was made for the appointment of trial justices in each county and the office has been continued until the present time.



Chapter XXVII
EDUCATION IN MAINE



ALUMNI HALL, UNIVERSITY OFFICES, UNIVERSITY OF MAINE



HANNIBAL HAMLIN HALL. MEN'S DORMITORY, UNIVERSITY OF MAINE

CHAPTER XXVII

EDUCATION IN MAINE

By WILMOT BROOKINGS MITCHELL

When Maine became a State in 1820, she inherited an educational equipment from the Mother State. How ample or adequate this heritage was, absence of reliable statistics makes it difficult to say, but from the facts that we do have, some fair inferences may be drawn.

We know that as early as 1673 "presentments" were found against the towns of Kittery and York for not "providing a schoole and schoolmaster for the aeducation of youth according to law"; that in 1701 the selectmen of York "bargened with Nath'll Freeman to Ceep a free scool" for eight pounds a year and "three pence pr week for teaching to Reade; and four pence a week for writing and sifering and no moor"; that the first school house in what is now the State of Maine was built in York in 1725; that in 1800 one hundred sixty-one towns had been incorporated within the present limits of Maine; that common schools had been established in all these towns according to law, and "grammar" schools in at least seven of them. We know that in 1820 there were two hundred thirty-six towns included in the nine counties of the State; that the first school returns, incomplete though they are, made to the Secretary of State in 1829, show that two hundred sixty-three towns had 2,461 districts, 139,868 children of school age, and that during the year there was expended by them for public schools more than \$138,000.

But Maine's educational heritage from Massachusetts consisted of more than school houses and scholars. It included certain principles of education that had early been established in the Colony of Massachusetts Bay and had been enacted into laws in Massachusetts. Such were the beliefs that "the good education of children is of singular behoof and benefit to any Commonwealth"; that free schooling should be made possible not only for the favored few but for every child; and therefore that every town or district within the Commonwealth "after the Lord hath increased it to the number of fifty householders" should provide a schoolmaster' or schoolmasters for at least six months in the year. Such, too, was the belief that these teachers should be persons not only of good education but of "sober life and conversation," vouched for by the "learned minister" in the parish in which each belonged.

The first school law enacted by a Maine Legislature, in 1821, was modeled largely after the school laws of Massachusetts. It compelled towns and plantations to support schools. It prescribed, however, not the length of time a school should be taught each year, but the amount of money to be expended for schools, not less than forty cents for each inhabitant. It

provided for the certification of teachers, and among their qualifications laid special stress upon sound moral character. Not forgetting the belief of their forefathers that the spelling book and the Bible, learning and morality, go hand in hand—a belief emphasized by the fact that the first teachers were ministers, and reflected in the custom of having the alphabet and Scripture verses upon their horn-books and samplers—these early Maine law-makers insisted that not only should reading, writing and arithmetic be taught in their schools, but also piety and justice, sobriety and regard for truth.

By this law the responsibility of supporting and managing the schools was divided, as it had been in Massachusetts from early times, between the towns and the districts therein. The town at its annual meeting elected a committee of not less than three or more than seven men whose duties were to examine and certificate the teachers, visit and inspect the schools, inquire into the discipline and proficiency of the pupils, choose the text-books, dismiss incapable teachers when they saw fit, and use their influence and best endeavor to secure good attendance. The town also allotted to each district its share of the money raised and appropriated by the town for the support of schools, that share being determined by the number of persons in the district between the ages of four and twenty-one. The district, however, located and built its school house, determined the length of the school year, at what age the children should be admitted to the school, and through its agent selected the teacher, provided utensils, and cared for the building. By this law the school district was made a body corporate with "power to take and hold any estate, real or personal, for the purpose of supporting a school or schools therein."

Besides these public schools and laws to govern them, there were also in Maine's educational heritage private or semi-private institutions of learning. In 1794 the General Court of Massachusetts had granted a charter to Bowdoin College, which began its active work in 1802 and in 1820 had an attendance of 102. As early as March 5, 1791, a charter had been given to Hallowell Academy, and soon after in the same year to Berwick. Fryeburg and Washington academies were incorporated in 1792 and Portland Academy in 1794. By 1821 there were twenty-five of these important secondary schools. These had been founded and supported partly by public-spirited citizens who loved learning and believed in it, and partly by the bounty of the Commonwealth. Up to the time of separation, these twenty-five schools had been given by Massachusetts 253,955 acres of wild lands "as the foundation of their endowment and to meet running expenses." Thus, with at least the beginnings of a school system for a heritage, the daughter State started out on her educational career.

A survey of Maine's school laws enacted between 1820 and 1845 reveals but few, if any, constructive measures of vital importance. They deal with such matters as (1) penalties for disobeying school laws; (2) powers of committees to expel or exclude pupils; (3) frequency of committees' visits

(1825); (4) determining the part of the school fund that could be used for fuel and repairs (1825); (5) provisions for union districts formed from two or more adjoining towns (1827); (6) provisions for remunerating school committees (1832); (7) the education of children on islands or in very remote parts of the town; (8) the division of funds to be used for schools taught by masters and those taught by mistresses (1827, 1842); (9) and the class of scholars that should be admitted to each (1827); (10) provisions for collecting school statistics (1825) (1833); (11) the setting aside of twenty townships of the public lands, the proceeds from the sale of which to be used as a permanent school fund (1828); (12) and the use of the State bank tax for public instruction (1833).

Of these, in the bearing that they had upon the future, the last four proved to be the most important. The classification of scholars for masters' and mistresses' schools was "the first legal provision that looked toward graded schools." The establishment of a permanent State school fund and the use of the bank tax for public instruction initiated a policy of State aid for public schools which was destined to be of great assistance in increasing their efficiency. The provisions for collecting school statistics were indispensable in distributing State aid at all equitably. But on the whole, school legislation moved along very slowly; and progress, if at all, proceeded at a snail's pace.

We can now see clearly that one great defect was the lack of any central organization. No provision had ever been made for State or county supervision. There were no teachers' associations or conventions. Each of the 455 towns, not to say each of the more than 3,000 districts, was a law unto itself, and the strength that is born of union and co-operation, the healthy rivalry that results from contact, and the challenge that comes from the interchange of ideas, were entirely wanting.

The legislator who took the first step to remedy this defect was Hon. E. M. Thurston of Charleston,—one of Maine's best educators. As chairman of the committee on education he introduced a bill in 1843 to provide for a "board of school commissioners, to consist of one from each of the thirteen counties of the State, to be appointed by the Governor and Council." After a good deal of discussion, the bill passed the House but failed of a passage in the Senate. The fear of partisan politics, of undue expense, and of useless State interference, helped to defeat it. The agitation, however, brought good results. It showed that something was wrong, that money was being wasted, and progress retarded.

In January, 1846, at a meeting of teachers and other friends of education held at Augusta, a committee was appointed to consider defects and suggest remedies. The committee consisted of Amos Brown, Philip Eastman, Samuel Benson and Alpheus S. Packard. The memorial which, in accordance with the instruction of their fellow-teachers, they presented to the Legislature, enumerated the following glaring faults: (1) the multiplying of school districts; (2) the prevalent inefficiency of school com-

mittees; (3) the want of suitable qualifications in teachers; (4) the want of proper classification in schools, arising from multiplicity of text-books and lack of system in course of study; and (5) the want of general interest in our free schools. As a remedy for these ills, they recommended the establishment of a State Board of Education. By July, 1846, this recommendation had been embodied in law. According to this law the Board was to consist of one member from each county, that member to be elected by the school committees of the several towns and the clerks of the several plantations in his county.

This was the greatest forward step in education that the State had yet taken; and 1846 is a year to be remembered by Maine educators. The first Board consisted of Stephen Emery, Horace Piper, Philip Eastman, Benjamin Randall, A. F. Drinkwater, Aaron Hayden, R. H. Vose, Samuel Taylor, Ebenezer Knowlton, David Worcester, Oliver C. Currier, Samuel Alden and William I. Savage. William G. Crosby of Belfast was elected secretary of the Board. The law required him to devote all of his time to this work, and for his services allowed him \$1,000. In 1849 Hon. E. M. Thurston succeeded Mr. Crosby and, serving in that office for three years, proved most efficient in carrying on its work. A careful perusal of the six reports of this Board shows that here was a group of men who knew what they were about, were enthusiastic in their work, and devoted to the public weal. Through their efforts the schools of the State were beginning to wake from their dormant condition. But, alas! this valuable organization ran against an obstacle.

The politicians found that they could not use it to reward a henchman or placate a faction. Hence in 1852 it had to go. During its six years of existence it had been able to collect more accurate information concerning the schools of the State than had ever before been collected. By clearly demonstrating the baneful effects of ill-ventilated, poorly lighted, ill-constructed school houses, and by furnishing definite plans of well built ones, it had improved the condition of the school buildings. It had also insisted upon higher qualifications for teachers and had helped them to improve themselves. For the first time it had brought teachers into institutes and conferences, where they could get acquainted with one another, together study methods, learn about new text-books, see model schools, and gain inspiration and a desire to improve or excel, from able speakers and from one another. Through conventions it had been enabled to increase the efficiency of the school committees that needed improvement much. And, perhaps best of all, it had given a central organization to the whole school system.

Though it pleased the politicians better, the plan that followed in 1852 lacked this central organization. It consisted of county commissioners who acted independently of one another. A commissioner was appointed by the Governor and Council for each county, and the law required that he must devote at least fifty days during the winter term to inspecting schools, vis-



HIGH SCHOOL, AUGUSTA



GENERAL HOSPITAL, AUGUSTA

iting the towns in his county, lecturing upon educational subjects, and in general, arousing an interest in public school matters. These county commissioners, according to the law, were to make an annual report to the Legislature, but this last duty they failed to do, and as a result it is difficult to tell just how this plan succeeded.

At all odds, we know that in 1854 it was abandoned and a law was passed which was destined to have a very important bearing upon the education of the State. It was the law providing for a State Superintendent of Schools to be appointed by the Governor and Council for a term of three years. In accordance with this law the Superintendent was to devote his time to "the improvement of common schools and the promotion of the general interests of education in this State." Among other things, he was to "investigate the operation of school laws; collect information in regard to the arrangement of school districts, the location and construction of the school houses, and the use of the best school apparatus; consult with school committees on the selection of text-books, and on methods of ascertaining the qualifications of teachers and of visiting and examining schools; inquire into the most approved methods of teaching and the best means of training and qualifying teachers for their duties." And for his work he was to receive a compensation of \$1,200 annually and necessary travelling expenses.

The first Superintendent was Mr. Charles H. Lord, of Portland. During his term of office, from June, 1854, to March, 1855, Mr. Lord spent a large portion of his time in visiting schools in different parts of the State; and his report, though it gives no statistical tables, as do later ones, contains so many pertinent observations, classical quotations, satirical comments and trenchant criticisms, that it is very interesting reading. He finds some things to commend and more to condemn. The committeemen, he thinks, are inefficient in their examination of teachers. The spelling of such uncommon words as "phthisic" and "manœuvre" often serves as the test of a teacher's literary qualifications. In the teacher's examination papers are often found, however, such gross misspellings of common words as "Inglish," "gramar," "consamit," "ignorence" and "certifecats." Although the moral code does not, as it once did, allow the master a bottle of spirits in school "to sacrifice to Bacchus to be favored of Minerva," yet teachers often "show no more signs of intelligence than one of Maelzel's automata." The female teachers often take the school because "they are kind of sick and can't do much work." He is shocked to find that two of the pedagogues whom he met spent the winter quarter teaching and the rest of the year in peddling, "forced after three months 'of tare and tret' to practice the other nine months in the merchandise of rags—to illustrate the harmony of 'Proportion' in the music of tinware, and the truth of 'Position' in the box of a peddler's cart." He finds the pupils often so unintelligent, and learning their lessons so much by rote, that they know not whether "Christian Consolation," the title of a reading selection, is a boy or girl. He rejoices, however, that Maine's percentage of illiteracy is lower than that in the whole of the

United States, and much lower than in Russia. Thus he hopes we shall become a nursery of men, if not of "cities with spires and turrets crowned where low-born baseness wafts perfume to pride."

The second Superintendent was Mr. Mark H. Dunnell, of Norway. His report published December 20, 1855, has fewer figures of speech than does his predecessor's, but, like the address of Abram Davenport, more of the Arabic signs. It shows that in those towns that made returns, three hundred seventy-nine out of three hundred eighty-four in the State, and in sixty-six of the ninety-nine plantations, there were 3,965 school districts and 277 parts of districts; that there were in the towns and plantations between the ages of four and twenty-one years 238,248 children; that of these the average number in the summer schools was 91,894 and in the winter schools 100,560; that the number of male teachers was 2,559 and of female teachers 4,137; that the average wages of male teachers per month, exclusive of board, were \$20.57 and of female teachers \$7.60; that the average length of all the schools for the year was 18.9 weeks; that the amount of money raised by taxes for the support of schools in 1854 was \$333,019.76; that the amount received from the State was \$54,398.96.

The report also shows that the Superintendent and other friends of education were still wrestling with those old enemies of the common schools: small districts, ignorant committeemen, inadequate buildings, ungraded schools, diverse text-books, and poorly qualified teachers. It leaves no doubt that they were alive to the situation and were making progress.

One of the great agencies in this progress was the Teachers' Convention, or Institute. During the year a convention lasting from three to five days was held in every county of the State; and these conventions were attended by 1691 teachers. Besides these, a large number of parents and others not engaged in teaching attended the evening lectures on pedagogical subjects given by the most prominent educators and preachers in the State. The increased interest in things educational aroused by these conventions proved that the \$2,000 appropriated for them by the State was money wisely expended.

For the year 1856, Mr. J. P. Craig of Readfield was State Superintendent, and in 1857 was succeeded by Mr. Mark Dunnell, who was Superintendent for three years.

In 1859 a State Teachers' Convention was held at Waterville. At this convention a State Association was organized. With the exception of a few years, this association, though under different names, has met annually since then, and has been of great help to the teachers of the State. It has brought to Maine some of the most inspiring educators of the country and initiated or helped to advance many important school reforms.

Mr. E. P. Weston of Gorham was appointed State Superintendent in 1860, and was reappointed in 1863. The latter is a red letter year in Maine's educational history. Those who were thinking about the problems of education and had an opportunity of observing schools, were coming to see

what today is an educational platitude, that the supreme agent in the make-up of a good school is the teacher; that without an efficient teacher, money spent for equipment is wasted and the best planned courses come to naught. To secure such teachers was for many years the problem. It took time for people then, as it does today, to discern the truth that, although much depends upon temperament and personality, teaching is both an art and a science, that there is much about teaching that can be taught.

In 1860 the Maine Legislature had voted to abolish the county institutes and establish at each of eighteen selected academies a normal department. Each academy was to provide suitable recitation rooms and teachers for at least fifty pupils for two terms, preference in the spring term being given to women and in the autumn to men, the trustees of the academy examining the candidates for admission, and the State Superintendent planning and supervising the course. For its services the academy was to receive \$100 the first year and \$200 the second year. Four hundred fifty-seven took advantage of this course in the spring of 1861, and four hundred thirty-eight in the autumn. Of these students, five hundred fifteen had previously taught. This was an interesting educational experiment, but it did not bring the good results anticipated, and the law was repealed in 1862. In March, 1863, however, a bill was passed for the establishment of two normal schools, one in the eastern part of the State and one in the western.

The Western School was established at Farmington during that year, "the trustees of Farmington Academy having transferred to the State in money, buildings, and lot, property of the estimated value of \$12,000." A new building was erected, and on August 24, 1864, the school opened. During the first term, fifty-nine from thirteen of the sixteen counties of the State attended the school. Ever since then it has prospered. It has had as principals: Ambrose P. Kelsey, 1864-65; George W. Gage, 1865-68; Charles C. Rounds, 1868-83; George C. Purington, 1883-06; and Wilbert G. Mallett, 1906-. It has today an equipment valued at \$160,500, and an attendance of 235. During its fifty-five years of existence 2,270 have taken here the full course.

The Eastern Normal School, located at Castine, was opened September 7, 1867. During the first term only twelve students were in attendance, but at the close of the fourth year, 140. Today it has 128 pupils and an equipment worth \$118,000. During its fifty-one years of existence 1,550 have been graduated from the school. Its principals have been: G. F. Fletcher, 1867-79; Roliston Woodbury, 1879-88; and Albert F. Richardson, from 1888 to the present time.

When we consider that these schools have given to prospective teachers of the State an opportunity to review their common school studies thoroughly, to use modern pedagogical apparatus, to get acquainted with the best text-books, to learn the best methods of teaching by practice in model schools under the supervision of instructors especially skilled in their profession, we can see that the establishment of these schools meant much to the

cause of education in Maine, and that 1863 marks a milestone in Maine's educational career. †

It was doubtless because of the good work done at these institutions, because the people saw that such schools are worth while, that the State opened the Madawaska Training School at Fort Kent in 1878; the Normal School at Gorham in 1879; the Aroostook Normal School at Presque Isle in 1903; and the Washington Normal School at Machias in 1910.

In 1864 Mr. Weston resigned his office, and in May, 1865, Rev. Edward Ballard of Brunswick was appointed in his place and was Superintendent for the next three years. A law enacted in 1868 defined more accurately the duties of the Superintendent, increased his salary to \$1,800, and travelling and other necessary expenses not to exceed \$500, and located his office in the State House at Augusta. Here "he must preserve all school reports of the State and other States which may be sent to his office, the returns of the superintending school committees of the various towns, and such books, apparatus, maps, charts, works on education, plans for school buildings, models, and other articles of interest to school officers and teachers as may be procured without expense to the State."

From 1868 to 1876 the schools of the State were under the supervision of Mr. Warren Johnson of Topsham, a wide-awake, far-seeing educator. During his term of office he sought with courage and resourcefulness to remedy some of the long-standing defects in the school system—inadequate inspection, incompetent teachers, poor wages, and short schools. To his advice and influence was due largely the enactment of such laws as stopped payment by the State of all school moneys to any town which had not made returns according to law; as imposed a penalty upon school officials for changing text-books more often than once in five years; as gave more powers to cities to take lands for school houses; as re-established teachers' institutes, which in a spirit of false economy had been abolished in 1863. But the greatest piece of legislation of all, was that which provided for the county supervision of schools. By this law each county was to have a supervisor whose term of office was to be three years, and whose duties were to visit schools, inspect them carefully, note and record the defects not only in the teaching but in school houses and out-buildings, give directions in the art of teaching, and act as official advisor and constant assistant to the school officers and teachers in his county. The State Superintendent and the county supervisors were to constitute a State Board of Education, of which the State Superintendent was to be *ex officio* secretary.

All available testimony agrees that this system of county supervision was a step in advance. It gave more careful school inspection than ever before, helped to arouse a new interest in the schools, to eliminate inefficient teachers, to increase attendance, and to lengthen the school year. Indeed, there were those who said it worked too well. It revealed too many shortcomings to satisfy some of the local school officials, and too many relatives of members of school boards had to step down from the teacher's desk which



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they had failed to enoble if not to adorn. At any rate, by one of those mistakes in judgment which, with all its virtues, seem to be inherent in a democracy, the Legislature of 1873 "scrapped" the county supervision system and allowed the schools to return to many of their old inefficient methods. This same Legislature, however, redeemed in part its reputation by passing a Free High School law that was destined to have a marked effect upon the schools of the State, and especially the secondary schools.

As early as 1636 there had been established in Boston a school in which Greek and Latin classics were taught, later called the Grammar, or the Latin Grammar School. A similar school was opened in Newtowne, now Cambridge, in 1636; in Salem in 1637; and in Newbury in 1639. These were in substance like the English Grammar School or our mid-nineteenth century high school—fitting schools from which students as they were "judged ripe" might be received into the college. When Maine became a State, there were within her borders seven of these schools. Besides these, as I have said, academies were established, and for fifty years these academies played an invaluable part in Maine's educational history. But as the high schools increased in number and efficiency, the attendance at many of the academies decreased; and since the most of them were without large endowments, by 1873 many of them were living at a dying rate. "Of the seventy-one academies and similar institutions of learning chartered by the State before 1871 only thirty-seven made returns that year, and twenty-seven of these were reported as without sufficient revenue." This meant considerable assistance by the State—in 1871, \$18,500.

It was felt that the Commonwealth could reach a larger number of boys and girls if the system of State aid were put on a broader basis. A law was passed in 1873 giving authority to any town to establish a free high school, and the State would pay one-half the cost of instruction, meaning by this only board and wages of teachers, providing that the sum paid by the State should not exceed \$500, and that the towns should make special appropriation for the purpose, exclusive of the amount required by law for common school purposes. And instead of charging for tuition as did the academies, these schools were to be free.

The very first year after the passage of this law one hundred and fifty of these schools were opened, and were attended by 10,286 pupils. The whole amount spent in maintaining the schools was \$83,524, and the amount disbursed by the State \$29,133. Hardly any other law has done so much as this Free High School law for the advancement of the cause of education and the dissemination of learning throughout the State. The free high school is the poor man's college. "It has opened to large numbers of our youth," wrote Superintendent Luce, "the sources of culture; influenced for good the common schools; given better teachers to the common schools; and inspired the pupils with new incentive to work in the desire to qualify themselves for admission to the high schools." Of course, such a law could not be passed without opposition, and this opposition took form by causing

the suspension of the law for one year in 1878. But today anyone who proposed a repeal of the law would be considered to have lost his reason. In the ten years between 1881 and 1891 the number of high schools increased from 100 to 228, and the total attendance from 7,792 to 15,739. Certainly 1873 is another year to be remembered in Maine's educational history.

In 1876 Mr. W. J. Corthell of Calais became State Superintendent of Schools. He was Superintendent for one year only, but his report is one of the most interesting and suggestive among the school reports of the State. At the end of the year Mr. Corthell resigned to become principal of the normal school at Gorham.

On December 31, 1878, Mr. Nelson A. Luce of Vassalboro was appointed State Superintendent. Hardly had he taken office when an administration of a different political stripe came into power, and for purely partisan reasons, in May, 1879, Mr. Edward Morris of Biddeford was put in his place. In February, 1880, however, Mr. Luce was again appointed, and held this important office until December 31, 1894. Mr. Luce proved to be a quiet, tactful Superintendent, a cogent reasoner and clear writer. During his administration many interesting school laws were enacted. In 1881 women were made eligible to membership on school boards and to the office of supervisor of schools. In 1883 the length of the school week was changed from five and one half to five days. In 1885 teachers in all schools were compelled to give instruction in physiology and hygiene, with special reference to the effects of alcoholic drink. In 1887 laws were enacted more strictly compelling the attendance of children at school between the ages of eight and fifteen at least sixteen weeks in the year, and providing that "no child under fifteen years of age should be employed in any factory except during vacations, unless he had attended school sixteen weeks the previous year." In 1889 all towns were compelled by law to buy text-books for the pupils in their schools. In 1891 a law was enacted that all public school teachers should devote not less than ten minutes of each week to teaching the principles of kindness to birds and other animals. In 1894 the old district system was abolished. This was the most important work that Mr. Luce accomplished. Against the wasteful, inefficient district system for years he argued long and hard.

Early New Englanders were suspicious of centralized power in the government of either Church or State. Every man wanted a chance to have his say. The school district was an example of extreme local self-government. So small was it that the voice of the poorest and most ignorant, to say nothing of the gossipy and ill-intentioned, could be loudly heard and sometimes, it seemed, exerted too powerful an influence in the location of the school-house or the choice or dismissal of the teacher. At any rate, in the cities the need was soon felt for a more simple and unified organization. Thus it was that even as early as 1822 a discussion arose concerning the powers and the advantages of the school district—a discussion which was not to be finally settled for more than seventy years.

On January 1, 1895, Mr. W. W. Stetson of Auburn became State Superintendent of Schools. During his first year he carefully inspected two hundred rural schools in eight different counties, both in new and sparsely settled and in older and more thickly populated portions of the State. Some of the facts he thus discovered are interesting and significant. Of the two hundred schools visited, Mr. Stetson was forced to grade 41% of them as "poor" or "very poor." Many of the school rooms were decorated with "glaring advertisements of some favorite brand of tobacco." The average age of the teachers was between twenty-four and twenty-five. Fifty-two per cent. had acquired all their education in the common schools; thirty-eight per cent. had attended an academy or high school one year; but only ten per cent. were graduates of either a normal or a high school. Many of the teachers he found incredibly ignorant, and without any skill at all in applying pedagogical methods. "Often during recitation periods," he writes, "there was a stream of pupils from desks to teacher and from the teacher to the desks, asking foolish questions, questions which the pupils themselves could answer with a little study." The work in arithmetic in 43% of the schools inspected was a senseless committing of rules. In the reading classes he found too often an unintelligent repetition of words with such mispronunciations as "Edinburg" for "Edinboro," "asslum for "asylum," "im-pi-ous" for "im'-pi-ous," "ep-i-tome" for "e-pit'-o-me" and "stip-u-les" for "stipules."

Discouraging as some of these facts were, the Superintendent did not stop here. The next year he sent out a list of searching questions concerning town superintendents and their work. While the answers brought back some heartening information, they also revealed the facts that 16% of the superintendents had received all their education in the common schools, and that 4% had never attended any school, either public or private; 35% had never taught; 68% reported that they had never read a book on the science or art of teaching; and 14% had read only one such book. Seventy-one per cent. of the teachers were legal residents of the towns in which they were teaching, and, what was more significant, 12% of all the teachers were relatives of members of the superintending school committees, and an additional 5% were so related by marriage or associated in business with these officials as to give these teachers an unsafe influence in securing their appointments. Thirty-five per cent. of all teachers had not even tried the examinations required by State law, and 38% of the teachers had never read any book on the science or art of education. It was this revelation of ignorance, incompetence, evasion of law, favoritism and nepotism, which led President Hyde of Bowdoin College to say at a meeting of the Maine Pedagogical Society at Lewiston on December 31, 1896: "In the literal sense of the old Greek word, the present is a crisis, a judgment, a parting of the ways, for our common schools of Maine. The State Superintendent has done an audacious thing. He has had the courage to tell the plain and awful truth about these schools of ours."

To correct these abuses, Mr. Stetson went to work with vigor and resourcefulness. Largely through his influence and advice a law was passed in 1895 providing for the State certification of teachers. Modeled after a similar Massachusetts law, it provided that State certificates might be granted for a term of years or for life; that a list of all persons receiving State certificates should be kept at the office of the State Superintendent; that copies of these should be sent to any school officer on application, and that these certificates should authorize the persons holding them to teach in the public schools of the State without examination by school committees or superintendents. Any person who had taught successfully for six terms of not less than ten weeks each might be a candidate for a State certificate. This was the beginning of State examination of teachers, and by giving an added dignity to the profession, making the tenure of office more secure, and on the whole leading to promotion, was a decided gain.

The same Legislature provided for summer schools for teachers. In these schools held at first at six different places, some of the very best teachers from the schools and colleges of the State were employed. Excellent instruction was given not only concerning modern pedagogical methods, but also in the subject matter of the branches taught in the schools—in literature, history, and science, in music and drawing, voice culture and manual training. In 1895 seven hundred and ninety-eight teachers attended these schools, one of which was held at the State University at Orono; and no doubt these teachers went back to their work in the fall with renewed interest, more skill and knowledge, and with an increased desire to excel.

In his tour of inspection the Superintendent had discovered that one great need was a carefully planned course of study. He saw that boys and girls in the rural schools were repeating their work term after term, that a child who ought to be in the second reader was blundering along in the fifth, and that often a major part of the time and attention of a pupil was spent on only one study. To the task of remedying this he now addressed himself, and in 1895 sent a carefully prepared and suggestive outline of a course of study to every teacher and superintendent in the State.

A step which Mr. Stetson considered perhaps the most important of his administration, was the formation of the School Improvement Leagues of Maine. He believed that the rural schools were unsuccessful partly because the community lacked pride; that too often parents took no interest in the schools and in consequence the children did little to co-operate with teachers or with each other even in maintaining mediocre standards—much less in improving them. To remedy this condition, Improvement Leagues were formed. Their expressed purpose was to enlist the intelligent support and the cordial co-operation of the parents in providing better surroundings, books for the children, teachers, and citizens, and in supplying works of art for the school rooms. The organization was simple. Local leagues were formed in the different schools. Town leagues were made up of the officers of the local leagues. And lastly there was a State league made up of



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delegates from the town leagues and of members of local leagues holding diplomas. The regular membership consisted of pupils, teachers, school officials, and other citizens who paid the assessed dues—not less than one cent a month for each pupil, and for every other member not less than ten cents a term. The plan, of course, was largely dependent upon some enthusiastic person to make it go. That person was Mr. Stetson, and through his efforts it proved a successful means of arousing dormant interest in the rural neighborhoods and in making the pupils and parents realize that the schools were theirs—not an institution thrust upon them from without—and that the obligation rested upon them to repair their school fences, beautify the school grounds, provide suitable physical surroundings for their children, and, indeed, bear their part as decent citizens. The Improvement Leagues did much to bind together school and community.

But valuable as the league plan proved to be, and rated highly as it was by Mr. Stetson, a still more important step taken by him was his strong advocacy of expert supervision. He early saw that no large business concern expending millions of dollars annually would for a moment tolerate the blundering and inefficient and unskilled superintendence which was at the heart of much that was wrong and wasteful in our schools. In 1896 he urged strongly in his report the system of expert superintendence for districts made up by the union of three or four towns—a system that had been tried in other States, and which is in successful operation in our State today—a system which has probably done more than any other one thing to better the schools of Maine.

Mr. Stetson's administration closed, to say the least, unfortunately. Party rancor became bitter. But even his political enemies had to acknowledge that he had with courage, resourcefulness and indefatigable industry inaugurated and advanced many important school reforms in the State.

In January, 1907, Mr. Payson Smith of Auburn became State Superintendent. From the first he was eminently successful. Being well acquainted with Mr. Stetson's plans and policies, the reforms which his predecessor had initiated Mr. Smith was able to push to a successful issue. He believed thoroughly in summer schools for teachers, in the school improvement leagues, in State certification of teachers, and especially in expert district supervision. None of these movements were, therefore, retarded because of the change of administration. But he did more than carry forward the policies of another. Any one who watched Mr. Smith's work at all closely, could not fail to see that he had a carefully thought-out theory of education. His forward steps were not uncertain. One felt that he saw clearly for at least five years ahead some of the big things he would have the schools of the State accomplish, and that he was pushing these forward just as fast and as hard as public opinion and support would allow. And in moulding that opinion and winning that support he was especially skillful. Not only did he know how to manage the politicians who made the appropriations at Augusta, but he was able to win whole communities at once to

his way of thinking. He could tell the assembled citizens of a town very frankly some ugly truths about the conditions of their schools, and do it with such evident sincerity that instead of arousing their hostility he would win their support.

One of the prime tenets of Mr. Smith's creed was: "The common schools are for the common people." And many of the things that he did seemed to spring from this belief. It was probably for this reason that he was such an unswerving advocate of vocational or industrial training. In 1910 his annual report gave a large part of its space to the findings of a committee, of which he was chairman, appointed to investigate the condition and results of industrial education in other States and other countries. In 1911, in accordance with a recommendation of this committee, the Legislature enacted a law for the encouragement of industrial education in the public schools of Maine. This law provided that whenever the superintendent of schools of any town should certify under oath to the State Superintendent that instruction in manual training or domestic science had been provided pupils of elementary schools for the year preceding, then, upon the approval of such certificate by the State Superintendent, State aid should be paid to the amount of two-thirds the total salary paid each teacher, provided that the amount paid by the State for the employment of any one instructor should not exceed \$800 in one year; and provided further that the course of study, equipment, and qualifications of instructors should have been approved by the State Superintendent of Schools. Equally generous provision was also made for State aid to high schools and academies giving instruction in agriculture and the domestic and mechanic arts. This law Mr. Smith rated as among the most important of his administration. And it was partly because of this law and partly no doubt because of his advocacy and interest, that courses in type-writing and stenography, sewing and cooking, carpentry and agriculture, were introduced into many schools, with the result—whatever the opponents of the movement may say—of greatly increasing the attendance, especially in city high schools. Thus, according to Mr. Smith, the schools were better serving the common people.

In harmony with this same belief was his reorganization of the secondary schools. For some years, so far as the State was concerned, they had apparently been let pretty well alone. But they were becoming, Mr. Smith believed, simply fitting schools for colleges, spending most of their time and money upon a favored few rather than the unfavored many. In consequence, in 1909-10 he overhauled them, classified them as A, B or C schools, saw that increased State aid was provided them, urged strongly for them a broader curriculum, employed a special inspector, Mr. Josiah W. Taylor, who has since faithfully devoted to them his entire time, visiting recitations, arranging courses of study, trying in every way possible to assist the teachers and to make these schools more efficient servants of all the people.

Mr. Smith was always interested in the question of compensation for his teachers. The very first sentence of his first annual report reads: "No

more serious educational problem confronts the people of Maine than that of the teacher's salary." And not one of the nine reports that follow fails to speak of the absolute necessity of Maine teachers' receiving better remuneration. Each year some progress was made in this direction; the most in 1913, when the teachers' pension law was enacted. By this, teachers who are sixty years old and have taught thirty-five years, twenty years of that time in Maine, receive annually upon retirement \$250; those who have taught thirty years, \$200; and twenty-five years, \$150—a short step, perhaps, but certainly a forward one.

During the eight years that Mr. Smith was superintendent, many other advances were made in the school system. In 1909 a law was enacted providing for the appointment of a school physician in each town of less than forty thousand inhabitants, his appointment to be made by the school committee when so directed by the town. The prime duties of this physician were the prompt examination of all school children referred to him, and of the teachers and janitors, and also of the school buildings, and the reporting of diseased or defective children to the parents. The law also required the school committee in every city or town—with a population less than forty thousand—to see that every child in the public schools was separately and carefully tested and examined at least once in every school year in order to ascertain whether he was suffering from defective sight or hearing, or from any other disability or defect tending to prevent his receiving the full benefit of his school work. Such a law inevitably meant not only better health for the pupils, but a discovery of individual weaknesses—especially defects in eyes or ears—a discovery which proved of great value to the teacher in dealing with the pupil.

In this same year (1909) the mill tax was doubled, and thus increased State aid for the schools was made possible. An act passed in 1872 created the first mill tax fund in Maine. By this a tax of one mill on a dollar was assessed upon all property in the State for the support of common schools. In 1907 this tax was raised to one mill and a half, and in 1909 was again raised to three mills. This meant a decided increase in the sinews of war.

That State aid might be equitably distributed, the Equilization Act was passed in 1909. This authorized the State Superintendent to recommend to the Governor and Council that increased aid be given to those towns in which the tax rates for common schools were excessive. In 1913 the Legislature set aside for this purpose forty thousand dollars. Thus were the educational opportunities for all the boys and girls of the State made more nearly equal. In 1909 it was enacted that towns should maintain schools for at least twenty-six weeks each year, instead of twenty, as formerly.

In 1913 a law was passed that no pupil of any public school should be a member of any secret society whatsoever that was in any degree a school organization. This removed a long-existing source of friction in the secondary schools.

Perhaps the greatest step in advance in Mr. Smith's administration was

the establishment of the Superintendents' Conference at Castine. The unification of the administrative educational agencies of the State was a distinct part of Mr. Smith's policy. The schools must have the strength that comes from union. In the summer of 1909 he invited all the superintendents of the State to meet at Castine—a beautiful seaside town. Here they met in the buildings of the State Normal School. Some of the best educators obtainable addressed them, but probably the greatest benefit to the schools came from their own discussions. Here the State Superintendent could reach more quickly and effectively the very men whom it was absolutely necessary to reach before almost any reform could be accomplished. By threshing out the subjects thoroughly in a wide-awake, good-natured discussion, and by setting forth clearly expressed, well-defined policies on which they could fairly well agree, the school men were often able to make as much progress in two years as before could be made in ten. Since 1909 this annual Superintendents' Conference at Castine has been highly valued as an all-important part of the educational work of the State.

Mr. Smith, much to the regret of all friends of good schools in Maine, resigned on June 30, 1916, to become Commissioner of Education in Massachusetts. The permanent appointment of his successor was long delayed, apparently for political reasons. Mr. Glenn W. Starkey, who had been Deputy Superintendent, was appointed to fill the position temporarily, and he did this difficult task to the satisfaction of all concerned. His report, published December 31, 1916, is a clear statement of the progress that was being achieved in Maine schools. Its facts and figures furnish an interesting contrast to those published in 1829, or in 1855. From Mr. Starkey's report—the latest published up to the present time—we find that on April 1, 1916, the whole number of persons in the State between the ages of five and twenty-one years was 226,237, of which 113,942 were boys and 112,295 were girls; that the number of pupils registered in the common schools was 133,407 and in the high schools 15,144; that the average length of the school year was thirty-six weeks; that the average monthly wages of male teachers in the common schools were \$56.94 and of female teachers, \$44.15; of male teachers in the high schools, \$112.47, and of female teachers, \$66; that the amount for pensions during the year, paid to 193 retired teachers, was \$22,921; that the amount raised by the towns for the support of common schools in 1915 was \$872,488, and the amount available from State school funds, \$1,559,236.

This report also shows that during the year 1916 the first attempt was made to reorganize thoroughly the schools of a town on the so-called "six and six" plan, the upper grades being divided into a junior and a senior high school. This reorganization was accomplished by Superintendent W. D. Fuller, of Old Town, now of Portland.

We also find in this report that the General Education Board appropriated \$5,600 to be expended in Maine, beginning January 1, 1916, under the direction of the State Superintendent. This was for the special pur-

pose of employing two agents for work in the rural schools. The agents selected were Mr. Harold A. Allan, of Auburn, from 1909 to 1915 Deputy State Superintendent, and Miss Florence M. Hale, an experienced teacher from the Aroostook Normal School. It was their special task not only to arouse an interest in good schools among the people of the rural districts, but also to furnish every assistance possible in securing for the schools better physical surroundings, more attractive and hygienic school rooms and better methods of instruction. Since their appointment they have done this with tact, resourcefulness and untiring industry.

In this report is also a good statement of the school work done in unorganized townships, of which Maine has a comparatively large number. To provide schools for the boys and girls of these plantations has forced upon the State an almost unique problem. For the last twenty years, little by little, the solution has been coming. The supervision of these schools, together with those on remote islands, and of the schooling of children living in light stations along the coast, has been left in the hands of one man, a special agent, in 1916, Mr. G. W. Gordon. From his statement we find that in that year free schooling was furnished to every child living in Maine, for more than seven hundred boys and girls in the seventy-two unorganized townships; and that a traveling "light-house teacher" went from station to station along the coast carefully instructing the pupils of one station for a week, and carefully outlining the work they were to do under the guidance of their parents before she came back again. The money expended for the schooling of children in the remote parts of the State amounted in 1916 to \$28,534.87. When we consider the large expanse of unorganized territory in Maine, we may well take pride that the State Department of Education is able to send the teacher and the spelling book, with all the other benefits of free schooling, to the loneliest settlement in the deep forest or to the humblest fishing hut on the remote islands of the coast. And this is done, we know, because the people of the State believe that an ignorant population is a menace to a free commonwealth.

On July 1, 1917, Dr. Augustus O. Thomas, of Nebraska, became State Superintendent of the Public Schools of Maine. Dr. Thomas for two years was State Superintendent of Public Instruction in Nebraska, and before that for nine years president of the State Normal School at Kearney. A year and a half is too short a time on which to base any just criticism or sound prophecy concerning a State Superintendent's work. But this we know: that Dr. Thomas comes with excellent training and broad experience; that he is a good public speaker and makes friends easily; that he is a thoughtful, enthusiastic worker, well versed in the rural school problem which has often loomed large in Maine; and that at the same time he is interested in the progress of city schools, and especially in the problems of industrial education and of trade schools such as the Smith-Hughes Act has made possible for our large manufacturing towns and cities. And we know that he has taken hold of his work with vigor and confidence. Dr. Thomas came

to Maine at a fortunate time. The schools are awake and progressive and the people are ready to spend their money to make them better. Every school of the State is under expert supervision; the superintendents are alive and forward-looking.

With all these things in our favor, we may believe we are fairly well equipped to do well the work before us, fairly well prepared for what is probably to be the great educational task in this State for the next ten years: to work out for the average boy and girl a kind of education that shall appeal to all their powers—hand, head, and heart; that shall not be so remote from daily needs and ordinary living as was the old training in Greek and Latin; but at the same time shall have its depth and coherence, and not the superficiality and incoherence of the modern so-called business course or vocational training. Thus shall we be kept from breeding a race of poor scholars and crooked thinkers and therefore undesirable citizens. The history of education in our State leads us to face the future with courage.

THE COLLEGES OF THE STATE.

Bowdoin College.—Bowdoin is the oldest college in Maine, indeed older than the State itself. Its charter, granted by the General Court of Massachusetts, was signed June 24, 1794. It was named in honor of a much-admired Governor of Massachusetts, who died in 1791, Hon. James Bowdoin. The first president of the college was Rev. Joseph McKeen, a graduate of Dartmouth, and for sixteen years pastor of the church in Beverly, Massachusetts. The first member of the faculty, besides the president, was Jacob Abbott, professor of ancient languages. The president was inaugurated in September, 1802, and the day after, with eight students, the college opened for active work in Massachusetts Hall, the only building that had been finished.

The first benefactor of the college was Hon. James Bowdoin, son of Governor Bowdoin. As early as 1794 he gave to the college \$1,000, and 1,000 acres of land, valued at \$3,000. Before 1802 he gave \$2,800 for the establishment of a professorship of mathematics and natural and experimental philosophy. Shortly before his death he gave to the college 6,000 more acres of land. He bequeathed to it many valuable books and paintings which he had collected during four years' residence abroad. The college was also made his residuary legatee and received from his estate more than \$33,000.

In 1805 the chair of mathematics and natural philosophy was established, and Parker Cleaveland was chosen to fill it. For fifty years he served the college with great distinction. He early published a treatise on mineralogy which attracted most favorable attention both in this country and abroad, and brought renown to himself and the little "down-east" college. It was of Parker Cleaveland that Longfellow wrote his sonnet beginning:



MEMORIAL HALL, BOWDOIN COLLEGE



MASSACHUSETTS HALL, BOWDOIN COLLEGE
Original Building, Erected in 1802



HUBBARD HALL, LIBRARY OF BOWDOIN COLLEGE



WALKER ART BUILDING

"Among the many lives that I have known,
None I remember more serene and sweet,
More rounded in itself and more complete,
Than his who lies beneath this funeral stone."

At the first Commencement, in September, 1806, a memorable event in the District of Maine, the degree of A.B. was conferred upon seven young men. This was the first class to be graduated under President McKen; and it was also the last, for on July 15, 1807, he died. Rev. Jesse Appleton, of Hampton, New Hampshire, a graduate of Dartmouth and an eminent divine, was his successor. Dr. Appleton, whose inaugural address dealt largely with the subject of college discipline, throughout his administration laid great stress upon watchfulness of the moral and spiritual welfare of the students. Under his guidance the college went forward. Its number of students increased to fifty and more; its new dormitory was finished in 1808; and throughout the State the college gained a reputation for "good morals and sound scholarship." After thirteen years of devoted service, President Appleton died with these words upon his lips: "God has taken care of the college and God will take care of it."

In December, 1819, Rev. William Allen, a graduate of Harvard, who had been pastor of the church at Pittsfield, Massachusetts, and but recently at the head of the short-lived Dartmouth University, was unanimously chosen president. During his administration, in 1820, the Legislature of Maine "established under the control, superintendence and direction of the president, trustees, and overseers of Bowdoin College a medical school for the instruction of students in medicine, anatomy, surgery, chemistry, mineralogy and botany." An increase in the number of students necessitated the building of another dormitory, which was finished in 1822 and which was called at first New, then North, College, and, in 1848, was given the name of Winthrop Hall. But President Allen's administration is to be remembered most of all for the men whom he had upon his faculty, men of sound scholarship and strong personality, all of whom left a deep impress upon the undergraduates. Besides the "magnificent and massive" Cleaveland, there was Samuel Phillips Newman, gentle and courteous, "the faithful friend, the skillful and patient teacher, the accomplished Christian gentleman," from 1820 to 1824 professor of ancient languages, and from 1824 to 1839 professor of rhetoric and oratory. There was Alpheus Spring Packard, for more than three score years an able and devoted servant of the college, from 1824 to 1865 professor of ancient languages, and from 1865 to 1884 professor of natural and revealed religion. There was William Smyth, "indomitable and uncompromising, stern in principle, rough in exterior, yet of finest sensibilities, a Greatheart in courage and kindness," professor of mathematics from 1825 to 1868. There was Thomas Cogswell Upham, "sensitive and saintly, half hermit, half man of the world, a most extraordinary combination of bashful modesty and unflinching boldness," professor of mental and moral philosophy from 1824 to 1867. And



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BOWDOIN COLLEGE CHAPEL

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CHEMICAL HALL, COLBY COLLEGE



COBURN HALL
BIOLOGY AND GEOLOGY, COLBY COLLEGE

administration, and largely through his efforts, an alumni endowment fund of \$100,000 was raised, and Memorial Hall was also built. In 1883 President Chamberlain resigned, and for the next two years the executive work of the college was done partly by Professor Packard but chiefly by Professor Henry L. Chapman.

Rev. William DeWitt Hyde was chosen president in 1885. He was then the youngest president in the country, and among the most sanely progressive. During the thirty-three years of his presidency the college went forward steadily and often rapidly. The system of student government, devised in 1883 largely by Professor Charles H. Smith, met with his heartiest co-operation. The curriculum was greatly broadened and the number of elective studies largely increased. The teaching staff was more than doubled and the number of students was more than trebled. The endowment fund was almost octupled. Besides the astronomical observatory and the Hubbard grandstand, five splendid buildings costing more than \$800,000 were added to the equipment. At the same time Bowdoin's standard of scholarship was held high; and President Hyde himself by his books, magazine articles and scholarly public addresses, brought renown to the college. In 1917, after a most vigorous and successful administration, he died at the age of fifty-eight years.

In June, 1918, Kenneth C. M. Sills, LL.D., of the Class of 1901, who had been professor of Latin for twelve years, eight years of that time also dean of the college and one year acting-president, was chosen to fill President Hyde's place. Dr. Sills begins his presidential career with brilliant promise. The college today has an endowment of more than two and one-half million dollars. It has an excellent equipment—including a rare art building, one of the biggest and best gymnasiums in the country, and a new finely-equipped, well-staffed, well-endowed infirmary. It has a library of more than 120,000 volumes. It has a loyal and united body of alumni. Just before the war it had a faculty of thirty men and a student body of 435. It has emerged from the war, conscious, like the other colleges of the State, of having done its patriotic duty. It did its best for the Students' Army Training Corps. Eight of its faculty and more than twenty-six per cent. of its graduates have been in the Service. In this war twenty-five Bowdoin men have given their lives for the ideals of humanity and righteousness which Bowdoin College for more than one hundred years has been teaching to her boys.

Colby College.—Colby College, during its more than one hundred years of existence, has had four different names: The Maine Literary and Theological Institution (1813-1821); Waterville College (1821-1867); Colby University (1867-1899); and Colby College (1899—). It owes its origin to the Baptist churches in the District of Maine. Bowdoin College was avowedly Congregationalist. Its presidents were Congregational ministers, and its faculty and the majority of its governing boards were of that denomination. The ministers and other members of the Baptist

churches in the District felt that they had no voice in moulding the policies of that college, and they desired an institution where their sons could be trained, especially for the ministry, under Baptist instruction. In response to their petitions the General Court of Massachusetts granted to them a charter in February, 1813.

On October 1, 1817, the location of the new institution was fixed at Waterville. Rev. Jeremiah Chaplin of Danvers, Massachusetts, was chosen professor of theology; and on July 6, 1818, instruction in the seminary commenced. By May, 1819, there were seventeen theological students. In October, 1819, the literary department began its work with about twenty-five students, under the direction of Rev. Avery Briggs, professor of languages.

In June, 1820, the Legislature of the new State of Maine gave to the new institution authority to confer degrees and granted to it a sum of \$1,000 annually for a term of seven years. It also, on February 5, 1821, changed the name of the institution to Waterville College.

The first president, elected in 1821, was Professor Chaplin. At this time there were seventeen students in the literary and five in the theological department. At the first Commencement, August 21, 1822, the degree of A. B. was conferred upon two young men.

The equipment of the college then consisted of the President's house and two brick dormitories, South College and North College, built in 1821 and 1822. In 1833 there were professorships in mathematics and natural philosophy, rhetoric and Hebrew, Greek and Latin. As in 1833 there were no students in the theological department, the chair of sacred theology was vacated. In 1834 the chair of modern languages was established. For three years, 1830-31-32, Waterville College conferred the degree of M. D. upon the graduates of the recently established Clinical School of Medicine in Woodstock, Vermont. Fifty-five medical students thus received their degrees.

Today, when we are hearing so much about industrial education, it is interesting to find that as early as 1831 Waterville College tried the experiment of combining manual and mental training. Between 1831 and 1842 the college built three workshops. The work in these shops—the making of doors, blinds, tables, chairs, and later of carriages, together with painting and printing—was done by the students under the oversight of a superintendent. Each student had his special task, was required to work three hours a day, and was paid for his work. Indeed, the purpose of the experiment seems to have been more to give the students a chance to earn money than to train them in manual labor. Perhaps it was for this reason that it failed, and the workshops became “a useless monument of misjudged expenditure.”

In 1833 President Chaplin resigned, and Rev. Rufus Babcock, Jr., of Salem, Massachusetts, was chosen as his successor. These were critical days for the college. Two of its professors had resigned with President



MEMORIAL HALL AND CHAPEL, COLBY COLLEGE



FOSS HALL, WOMEN'S DORMITORY, COLBY COLLEGE





OBSERVATORY, GYMNASIUM, COLBY COLLEGE



ROBERTS HALL, MEN'S DORMITORY, COLBY COLLEGE

Chaplin; it was \$18,000 in debt, and its friends were full of doubts and fears. President Babcock was obliged to sail very close to the wind, but he weathered the gale. He succeeded in securing subscriptions; the number of students was increased to over one hundred; and the equipment improved by the erection of a new building costing \$6,000. But in 1836 sickness compelled him to resign. Rev. Robert E. Pattison of Providence, Rhode Island, was a much beloved president for the next three years. During these years and those immediately following, the college was so critically in need of funds that it was threatened with suspension. Indeed, in 1839, nearly all the faculty tendered their resignations at one time. But the friends of the college rallied to its support, and by 1841 had subscribed a fund of \$50,000.

From 1841 to 1843 Mr. Eliphaz Fay of Poughkeepsie was president, and was then succeeded by Rev. David N. Sheldon, pastor of the Baptist Church at Waterville. During his administration of ten years the college went on quietly. Its funds or its numbers did not increase, but Dr. Sheldon was a man of wide experience and broad culture, and with the assistance of the exceptionally able faculty that he gathered around him, he gave the boys an excellent education.

From 1853 to 1856 Dr. Robert Pattison was again president. The year 1857 may be regarded as a kind of landmark in the history of this college. For forty-four years the institution had existed. In that time it had graduated 372 young men, and no doubt had done for them its best; but one looking back cannot but feel that it was a life and death struggle. From the first the college had been hampered for lack of financial support, sometimes so critically as to threaten its existence. Its presidents had been able men, but their terms of office had been too short. It now had three buildings much out of repair, and a fund of not more than \$17,000. It was at this juncture that Professor James T. Champlin became president. He was a man of executive ability; well acquainted with the needs and the friends of the college; and he set himself to his task with vigor, persistence and faith. He needed them all. In 1859 funds were solicited with but poor success, and in the early sixties the number of students was cut in two by the Civil War. And then, in 1864, came a turn in affairs. Mr. Gardner Colby of Newton, Massachusetts, agreed to give \$50,000 on condition that other friends of the college should give \$100,000, and also that the president and a majority of the faculty should be members in good standing of regular Baptist churches. The gift at once awoke friends of the college, and within two years the entire sum was subscribed. In 1867, at the request of the trustees, the Legislature passed an act changing the name of Waterville College to Colby University.

In 1869 a memorial hall containing a chapel, library, and alumni room was built at a cost of about \$50,000, and in 1871-72 a science building, Coburn Hall, was erected. In 1871 the trustees took the important step of admitting young women to all the courses on the same terms as young men.

Since then more than 500 women have been graduated at Colby. In 1873 Dr. Champlin closed his successful presidency. During his administration the invested funds had increased from \$17,000 to \$214,000, and the equipment had been greatly enlarged and improved.

Dr. Champlin's successor was Dr. Henry E. Robins. President Robins made an especial effort to increase the number of students by an appeal to the Baptists of Maine to send their children to Colby. In this he was successful. The number increased from fifty in 1872 to one hundred fifty-seven in 1879. But he did more than this. He introduced into the curriculum new elective studies; improved the library; and also the opportunities for physical training. In 1879 the college received from the estate of Gardner Colby a bequest of \$120,000. And in this same year Dr. Robins resigned.

From 1882 to 1889 the college was under the able oversight of Dr. George D. B. Pepper. During these years a bequest of \$200,000 came to the college from the estate of Abner Coburn, and the gift of a fine brick building costing \$15,000, the Shannon Observatory and Physical Laboratory, from Colonel Richard C. Shannon, of the Class of 1862. At the close of Dr. Pepper's administration the endowment of the college had risen to \$505,767.

The first graduate of Colby to be its president was Albion W. Small, Ph.D. By his advice the trustees in 1890 organized co-ordinate divisions of the college—one for young men and the other for young women. In accordance with this plan, the terms of admission are identical; instruction, as far as practicable, is given separately; and "in class organization, rank, prize contests, appointments and honors, the members of the two divisions are treated as independently as though they were in distinct institutions." Dr. Small also devised and put into successful operation a system of student government.

In 1892 Dr. Small resigned to accept the head professorship of sociology in Chicago University, and Rev. B. L. Whitman, a graduate of Brown University, became president. During his administration the number of students increased to 200, of whom 56 were young ladies. But again a larger institution robbed Colby, and he accepted the presidency of Columbian University at Washington, D. C. Dr. Nathaniel Butler, Jr., his successor, became president on January 1, 1896. In 1899 the name of the institution was again changed, this time to Colby College. A subscription of \$60,000 was secured, and in 1898 the alumni chemical hall was built at a cost of \$30,000. Dr. Butler was a friend-making man, and he united well the forces of the college—trustees, faculty, students, alumni, and other friends. All deeply regretted his departure when he resigned to accept a professorship in Chicago University.

From 1901 to 1908 the college was under the direction of Rev. Charles L. White, D.D. An important event of Dr. White's presidency was the erection of a large, finely equipped building for the Women's Division—Foss Hall, the gift of Mrs. William H. Dexter of Worcester, Massachusetts.



CHAPEL, BATES COLLEGE



CORAM LIBRARY, BATES COLLEGE

Upon the resignation of Dr. White in 1908, Professor Arthur J. Roberts, a graduate of the college in the Class of 1890, and for eighteen years professor of rhetoric, was chosen president. Professor Roberts had been a popular instructor, and he brought to the presidency a vigor and enthusiasm that aroused the loyalty of others. During his administration the college has prospered. The number of students has greatly increased, there being at Colby just before the World War (1916), 267 men and 173 women. The faculty then numbered thirty. The alumni are enthusiastically united in their loyal support of President Roberts's administration. It is the purpose of the college to raise for its endowment fund one-half million dollars by 1920, when it is to celebrate its centennial, and more than two-thirds of this amount has already been subscribed.

In the great war for human rights, Colby men have done their best to do their bit. More than six hundred graduates and undergraduates have been in the service and seventeen have made the supreme sacrifice. With one hundred years of honorable achievement behind her, Colby College has the right to expect the future to bring her even better things.

Bates College.—Bates College grew out of Maine State Seminary, and Maine State Seminary sprang from the mind and heart of Rev. Oren B. Cheney, a Free Will Baptist minister in Augusta, Maine. In 1854 the buildings at Parsonsfield Seminary, the only Free Baptist school in the State, were burned, and Mr. Cheney at once conceived the idea of founding a school, centrally located, which could more nearly supply the needs of the denomination. The idea could not have come to a better man. Stirring, intense, tireless, persistent, with experience as a teacher and preacher, able to win friends to his cause, he was by nature and by training an educational crusader. He immediately consulted friends, with the result that in November, 1854, a Free Baptist State Conference was held at Topsham, at which it was unanimously voted not only to rebuild the school at Parsonsfield, but also to found another school elsewhere and to ask the State for assistance to do this. To the proposed school the Legislature granted a charter in 1855, and also a gift of \$15,000 on two conditions: (1) that \$5,000 of this amount could be used for necessary expenses and \$10,000 put aside as an endowment fund; and (2) that friends of the school should raise an equal amount.

Several towns of course wanted the school—China, Hallowell, Unity, Pittsfield, Lewiston and others—but Lewiston was as centrally located as any of them, and, more than that, was ready to pay the needed \$15,000 for the sake of having it—one business firm, the Franklin Company, alone subscribing \$5,000. With wise prevision an excellent site was chosen and two halls were built—Parker and Hathorn.

The school opened auspiciously in September, 1857, with six instructors, of whom Mr. Cheney was principal, and one hundred thirty-seven students. Probably in the beginning Mr. Cheney did not plan to found another college in Maine, but as the seminary progressed, after five years

his purpose was well formed. His trustees at first lacked courage. By July, 1863, however, they voted that application be made to the Legislature for a college charter; for permission to transfer the property of the seminary to the college as if the college and seminary were one; and also for authority to change the name from Maine State Seminary to Bates College. This name was chosen—without his knowledge, of course—in honor of Mr. Benjamin E. Bates of Boston, who had taken a lively and generous interest in the seminary and who had proposed a gift of \$25,000 to the new college, and from whom the college later received many munificent donations.

In the autumn of 1863 college work began with sixteen in the freshman class and a faculty of five. Dr. Cheney was president, and Jonathan Y. Stanton professor of Latin. Each year the number of students increased, so that by 1869 there were seventy-seven.

At first the seminary became a preparatory department of the college, and out of it grew a little later a Latin school, on the same campus, but with a separate building and separate administration. The ladies' department of the seminary was transferred to Maine Central Institute, a new Free Will Baptist school at Pittsfield, Maine. In 1870 a theological department was brought to Bates from New Hampton, New Hampshire, and in 1887 was given the name of Cobb Divinity School in honor of Hon. J. L. H. Cobb of Lewiston. This school continued until 1907, and from it were sent out one hundred forty-seven graduates.

Of course the transformation from seminary to college was not made without honest opposition. Some felt that the seminary was being abandoned; others that the founding of another college was too bold a venture. That it was a bold undertaking no one could deny; at the same time there seemed to be good reasons why it should be attempted.

Bates was the only Free Baptist College east of Michigan, and in New England alone there were thirty thousand members of that denomination. It was to make a special appeal to indigent boys and girls, of whom there were a great number in New England, perfectly worthy, but who could not secure a college education unless some such institution were established; and all the arrangements for living were to be made with that end in view. Moreover, it was most frankly and emphatically to throw stress on religious teaching, on the development of individual Christian character by close, almost parental, oversight. And lastly, it was to do what no New England college up to that time had dared to do—throw its doors wide open to women students. With what success it has accomplished these things the years have shown.

Its first twenty years were full of struggle. Often, especially between 1870 and 1880, there were anxious days and nights for President Cheney. The college had men on its faculty who worked for its interests with sacrificing loyalty—sometimes giving up no small share of their salary that it might be able to meet its bills. It had attracted a good body of students,—by 1880, one hundred forty-one. But it was constantly handicapped by



CARNEGIE SCIENCE HALL, BATES COLLEGE



HATHORN HALL, BATES COLLEGE

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LIBRARY, UNIVERSITY OF MAINE



FRATERNITY HOUSE, UNIVERSITY OF MAINE

lack of funds. Often, in spite of the closest planning, there was a deficit. At one time the debt ran as high as \$90,000. In 1884 for the first time the treasurer's books showed a balance—of only \$71.52, to be sure—on the right side; but even then the college had an endowment of only \$157,037, not more than half the amount needed.

In 1886 Hon. J. L. H. Cobb of Lewiston agreed to give \$25,000 to the college if it could raise \$75,000. This within two years it was able to do; meanwhile an additional bequest of \$40,000 had come to it.

Since that time Bates College has never felt its existence threatened by lack of funds. But it has often needed them badly, as does any growing institution which gives to its students from three to five times what they pay for. New students bring increased needs. To keep abreast of the times, new courses must be introduced, new chairs established, new buildings erected; so that it has often been said that a college that does not live a little ahead of its normal income can hardly be called a progressive institution.

Bates has been especially fortunate in its presidents. While in many another college the president has come, stayed a few years and then gone, leaving necessarily a large number of tasks which no one else could finish as well as he, Bates, through its fifty-five years, has had only two presidents. President Cheney, the founder, knowing thoroughly the ideals of the college, its alumni and other friends, its limitations and its means, held this office with success until 1894, when he resigned at the age of seventy-seven, and Mr. George Colby Chase was selected as his successor. President Chase had already been connected with Bates, as student, and as professor of English literature, for more than twenty-five years. An able scholar and administrator, he has been, like President Cheney, a tireless worker, absolutely devoted to the interests of the institution. Under him the college has gone forward steadily and sanely. It has not been lured into wild vagaries by the many educational fads of the last two decades; it has been willing to be a small but growing liberal arts college.

It has today twenty-one departments, and more than a dozen substantial buildings, the most prominent among which are a beautiful new chapel, the Coram Library, the Carnegie Science Hall, the Libbey Forum, and Roger Williams Hall. It has a library of more than 40,000 volumes, and an endowment fund of \$750,000. Just before the war (1916-17) it had a faculty of thirty-one members and a student body numbering 486. It has graduated more than 2,200, of whom the women slightly exceed in number the men. Both graduates and undergraduates, men and women, have been patriotically active in the great war. With this record, Bates College has certainly proved her right to live, and to live happily and prosper.

The University of Maine.—In 1862 Congress passed the Morrill Act assigning to the different States and Territories tracts of land, the proceeds from the sale of which were to be used "to promote the liberal and

practical education of the industrial classes." To this act the University of Maine owes its origin.

Maine State College, as it was at first called, was located in Orono, Maine, on January 25, 1866. It did not, however, open for active work until September 14, 1868. It then had twelve students and a faculty of two: Merritt C. Fernald, A. M., a graduate of Bowdoin College, acting president, and professor of mathematics, and Samuel Johnson, A. M., also a Bowdoin graduate, farm superintendent and instructor in agriculture. The next year a professor of chemistry, Samuel F. Peckham, A. M., of Rhode Island, was added to the faculty. At the end of three years Professor Fernald asked to be relieved of his duties as acting president, and Rev. Charles F. Allen, D. D., a preacher in the Methodist Episcopal church, was chosen president.

Dr. Allen was president for seven years. These were years of comparatively small beginnings. Slowly buildings were erected; new courses added to the curriculum; new men to the faculty. In 1872 the college became co-educational. In that same year the first Commencement was held and six men were given their degrees. By 1875 there were 121 students in the college. Dr. Allen resigned in 1878, and Professor Fernald was chosen his successor in March, 1879.

The early years of President Fernald's administration were not without discouraging circumstances. The "Greenback Legislature" would grant to the college no appropriation at all, and, what was more, voted that students should be charged tuition. This resulted in reducing the entering class from fifty to seventeen. Scientific farming was but little known, and many people in the State assumed an attitude of indifference or superiority or even ridicule towards the institution. A farmer's boy was likely to be laughed at "who had to go down to 'Cow College' to learn how to milk."

But these years certainly had their brighter side. In 1883 the Legislature appropriated \$28,000 for a workshop in which the Russian system of shop instruction could be carried out. In 1885 the State Experiment Station was located at the college, although not at the time under its administration. In 1887, however, through the provisions of the Federal law, the Hatch Act, which gave an annual income to the station of \$15,000, the Maine Agricultural Station was organized as a department of the college. On June 24, 1888, Coburn Hall, a building for the departments of natural history and agriculture, was finished. This building was so called in memory of Hon. Abner Coburn, who had generously contributed \$100,000 towards an endowment fund. In 1889 and 1890 the State appropriated \$30,000 for the college; also in 1890 Congress passed the second Morrill Act, and this gave to each of the land-grant colleges \$15,000 a year. Thus the equipment and income of the college were gradually increasing.

In 1892 President Fernald found his health failing. He therefore resigned; but was persuaded to keep the presidency until his successor could be found. This was not until September, 1893. During the twenty-



COBURN HALL, BIOLOGY AND HISTORY, UNIVERSITY OF MAINE.



WINGATE HALL, CIVIL ENGINEERING

five years that the college had existed, from 1867 to 1892, the legislative appropriation had averaged \$12,000 annually, or \$301,718 all together. Up to this time 367 had graduated, and 346 non-graduates had attended the college. There were then 128 students in college and nineteen men on the faculty.

Dr. Fernald proved to be an able pioneer president. He was a clear thinker; able to persuade others of the reasonableness of his cause; intensely loyal to the institution; an indefatigable worker; absolutely honest; a sympathetic adviser and friend of students; a Christian gentleman. From 1898 to 1908 he was professor of philosophy and in the latter year, being compelled to give up active work on account of ill health, he became professor emeritus in that department. He died on January 8, 1916, and was buried near the campus where for fifty years he had lived and loved and labored. His name will be forever affectionately associated with the university.

On September 1, 1893, Abram W. Harris, Sc.D., LL. D., became president of the college. Under his guidance it made marked and rapid progress. Old buildings were renovated and new ones erected. A Latin-Scientific course, designed to fit students for teaching, was established. In 1895 a summer school was held here for the first time. In 1897 the Legislature changed the name of the college to the University of Maine, and granted to the new university a larger appropriation than ever before—\$20,000 a year for a term of ten years. On October 5, 1898, a School of Law was opened at Bangor. In 1899 a classical course leading to the degree of A. B. was added to the curriculum. In 1901 Dr. Harris resigned to become Director of Jacob Tome Institute. During his successful administration the number on the faculty had increased from twenty-five to more than fifty, and the number of students from 139 to 400.

On December 23, 1901, George E. Fellows, Ph.D., L.H.D., was elected president of the University. In 1903 the University joined the New England Certificate Board. This meant that the requirements for admission would be as difficult as those to any college in New England with the exception of Harvard and Yale. In this same year a course in forestry was established. In 1904 several buildings were added to the plant. One of these was the agricultural building, Holmes Hall, named in honor of Dr. Ezekiel Holmes, for many years editor of the *Maine Farmer*, and a devoted friend of Maine State College. Another was the new engineering building, Lord Hall, named in honor of Hon. Henry Lord, for many years president of the board of trustees. In 1906 a fifty-five thousand dollar library building, the gift of Andrew Carnegie, was dedicated. In the same year a department of education was established; and in 1909 the department of domestic science. In 1910 the University ceased to be a member of the New England College Certificate Board, and adopted a plan of admitting on certificate from any Class A high school in the State. Dr. Fellows closed his administration on September 1, 1910.

Dr. Fellows' successor, Robert J. Aley, Ph.D., LL.D., who had been

State Superintendent of Public Instruction in Indiana, took his office on January 1, 1910. In these nine years Dr. Aley has shown himself to be a sound educator and able administrator. The equipment has been constantly improved. In 1911 a building was purchased for the Law School in Bangor. A new dormitory for women and several other beautiful and substantial buildings have been erected on the campus. Just before the war (1916) there were at the university 1,260 students, including those at the summer school and those taking short courses. Of the whole number 170 were women. The faculty numbered 144; and the Legislative appropriations for the University for 1915-16 were more than a third of a million dollars.

In the Great War, 1,600 graduates and undergraduates were in the service, and the University of Maine has the proud and solemn honor of having thirty-one golden stars upon her service flag.



Chapter XXVIII
THE RELIGIOUS HISTORY OF MAINE



NEW PUBLIC LIBRARY, BANGOR



THEOLOGICAL SEMINARY, BANGOR

CHAPTER XXVIII

THE RELIGIOUS HISTORY OF MAINE

By EDWIN CAREY WHITTEMORE

If the Maine Indian "saw God in clouds and heard him in the wind"; if he fared forth to battle from a sacrificial fire, and made his last great adventure, a journey to the "Happy Hunting Grounds," he has left us no record of his experience. From the Indian, however, as the white man found him, we are sure that there was a religious life in Maine before its inhabitants ever heard of the religions of Europe.

In 1497 John Cabot discovered North America and claimed it for England on the assumption that any "heathen and treacherous lands, countries and territories, not actually possessed by any Christian Prince, nor inhabited by Christian people," were the lawful prize of any European who landing on the shores should set up there a flag or a cross. The king of France was equally alert for such easy conquests. In 1603 he gave trading and seignorial rights to Sieur De Monts over all the territory between Newfoundland and Philadelphia. Landing at an island which he called St. Croix, in the river now known by that name, he laid out a settlement. In 1605 De Monts and Champlain explored the coast westward as far as the Kennebec, calling at and naming Mt. Desert on their way. With De Monts was the Jesuit Father Nicholas d'Aubri, and he offered the sacrifice of the mass at Ducet Island (1604) the pioneer of the Catholic clergy of New England. The effort to found a French colony on the coast of Maine, however, failed.

March 5, 1605, George Weymouth sailed from London. Rosier, the historian of the expedition, says that "the first island we fell with was named by us "St. George island," now Monhegan. After exploring the St. George river, setting up crosses, and kidnapping five natives, the English ship sailed home to report "to the honorable settlers forth" the success of the expedition which had for its end "a public good and true zeal of promulgating God's holy church by planting Christianity." In pious language the exploits of Weymouth are described, but the good effects of his refusing to trade on the Sabbath were somewhat reduced by his stealing five of the Indians and carrying them to England. Two years later the Popham expedition found one of Weymouth's crosses, and there Rev. Richard Seymour, chaplain of the expedition, held the first religious service conducted by an English clergyman in New England. In the Popham settlement at the mouth of the Kennebec, a church was built and regular services maintained by Chaplain Seymour until the abandonment of the colony in 1608.

In 1613 the Catholic mission of St. Saveur at Mt. Desert was destroyed by Captain Argall, of South Virginia, and lay brother Du Thet was killed.

Argall's purpose was to keep the French from becoming established in North Virginia, of which Maine was then a part. The French, however, thought they were within their rights, for in 1613 Louis XIII of France had bestowed on Madam De Guercheville all the territory between the St. Lawrence river and Florida. The purpose of this eminent woman was religious and missionary. A little later the Jesuits established themselves at Castine.

In 1646 Father Gabrielle Dreuilletes was on the Kennebec, and was hospitably received at the Puritan trading posts. The same year he became missionary to the Indians at Norridgewock, attaining large success until he gave the work over to the Capuchins. He was back again at Norridgewock in 1650. This mission was continued for more than seventy-five years. In 1688 Father Bigot erected a fine church which was afterward adorned and improved by his successor, Father Rasle. Rasle, of noble birth and highest culture, from a university position at Nismes, came to Norridgewock in 1694. Soon he was the spiritual head and father of the tribe. The Indians became very faithful in the discharge of all their religious duties. A surpliced choir of forty Indians had part in the church services. "The whole nation of the Abenakis is Christian and very zealous to pursue their religion," wrote Rasle. He accompanied the tribesmen on their expeditions, and in their conferences with the English sought to maintain their rights. The writings of Rasle show him as utterly unselfish, devoted to his Indian converts, and loyal to their national interests, which he naturally identified with those of his own France. He lived a life of self-denial among the Indians for more than thirty years, and it was hard for him to believe that the land occupied by his Indians and himself belonged to their national foe, England. On the other hand, the English settlers were convinced that Rasle was the most dangerous foe that English civilization in New England had to meet, and that the English settlers would never be safe so long as the French priest controlled the Indians.

The seventeenth was a sad century for the Indians of Maine. With its opening came the white man—the "Black Robe," the Catholic Father from France, won the heart of the Indian, and identified himself with him. The English sought ever more of his land and gave him little in return. We have record of but one effort of the Puritans to evangelize the Indians of Maine. In 1717, in connection with the Council at Arrowsic, they sent Rev. Joseph Baxter as missionary, who labored with indifferent success till 1721. The strifes of France and England beyond seas carried terror to the cabin of the settler and the wigwam of the Indian in the forests of Maine. The Indian was ever a true partisan of France. Did the French priest do his utmost to keep him from deeds of violence? Sometimes, beyond question, yes, though the English believed that the French, whatever their profession, were ever ready to let loose their original of "frightfulness," the Indian in his war paint, and placed a bounty on Indian scalps. From the outbreak of King Philip's War in 1675 to 1713, more than 6,000 of the

youth of New England were killed in the horrors of Indian warfare.¹ The Indians were nearly exterminated. Efforts on the part of the English of Massachusetts to win the Indians from Catholicism and France utterly failed. A great price was set on the head of Father Rasle. Finally a second expedition fell upon Norridgewock in 1724. The Indians, taken by surprise, were shot down. Father Rasle was killed and scalped, and the expedition went back to Massachusetts, where honors and the promised reward awaited them. The few remaining Indians stole back, found the body of their priest, and buried it under the ashes of the altar where two days before he had officiated. Hopeless and heartbroken, they took their way to Canada, and no Catholic missions were founded in Maine for seventy-five years. It is notable, however, that when Father Cheverus visited Maine in 1797, he went to the Catholic Indians at Old Town and Passamaquoddy. 'Tis a page from the sad annals of those days. On the opposite page is the story of settlements of English destroyed, women and children led into captivity, ministers slain, and churches burned. Patriotism and religion are close together, and their union makes the most powerful force known to man for construction or destruction.

For a part of the seventeenth century the Episcopal church was the State Church of the Province of Maine. It was stipulated in the charter by which, August 10, 1622, Sir Ferdinando Gorges and Captain John Mason obtained the territory between the Merrimac and Kennebec, which they named the Province of Maine, that worship should be maintained according to the order of the Church of England, and William Morrill, a clergyman, was commissioned to superintend the setting up of the Established Church throughout the country. His service was "ineffectual." On May 24, 1636, Rev. Richard Gibson landed at Richmond Island, where he served for three years. Once he was haled before the court at Boston for "being wholly addicted to the discipline and hierarchy of England." Robert Jordan succeeded Mr. Gibson. He, too, was ordered to refrain from the exercise of ministerial functions, but disregarded the order. His house was burned by the Indians in King Philip's War, and Mr. Jordan fled with his family to New Hampshire. After this no work was done by the Episcopal church in Maine for eighty years.²

It is not surprising that Puritan Massachusetts sought to extend her spiritual dominion over Maine. Thomas Jenner, the first Puritan minister in Maine of whom record remains, wrote from Saco to Governor Winthrop, April 2, 1641, of the criticism of Mr. Vines, who said that he "struck at the Church of England." Mr. Jenner remained in Saco about two years.³ Rev. John Wheelwright, classmate and friend of Oliver Cromwell, who had been banished from Boston for sharing the opinions of his sister-in-law, Anne Hutchinson, purchased the town of Wells of Mr. Thomas Gorges and

¹Hutchinson, "Hist. Mass.," vol. 2, p. 183.

²Marguerite Ogden, *North East*, March, 1918.

³Burrage, "Hist. Baptists," p. 9; Burrage, "Beginnings of Colonial Maine," p. 378.

preached there till his departure for England in 1647. He founded a church of which no record remains.

In 1652, after direct appeal to the people, Massachusetts secured control of Maine, and her law, which required every town of a certain population to support a minister by taxation and to provide a ministerial lot or farm, became operative. In most cases these ministers were Harvard graduates or English or Scotch university men, and were well fitted for the leading place which they assumed in the several communities. Frequently, however, the minister served many years without forming any church or administering the sacraments. Under the theocracy the whole population were served by the gospel and were taxed for its support. The minister was a town official.

Probably the first Puritan church in Maine was formed at York in 1673 or earlier. In that year, December 13, Rev. Shubael Dummer, who had graduated at Harvard in 1656 and had preached at York as supply from 1662, was ordained to a pastorate of nineteen years. He was shot by the Indians just as he was mounting his horse to help repel an Indian attack in 1692. Mrs. Dummer was taken captive.

Religious controversy already had entered Maine. The quiet people who had espoused the doctrines of George Fox, who called themselves "Children of the Light," because they professed to be led by an inner light which revealed the truth to their souls, and who, not wishing to usurp the name "Church," which they believed to belong to Universal Christendom, called themselves "Societies of Friends," found their entrance a matter not of difficulty only but of tragedy. Quite clearly to the Puritan mind did the Friend's obedience to the light in his own soul mean disobedience to all rightful authority, even plain anarchy. John Fiske said, "There was nothing that the orthodox Puritan so steadfastly abhorred as the anarchical pretense of living by the aid of a supernatural light."

In July, 1656, two women of the Quaker faith, Mary Fisher and Anne Austin, arrived at Boston. At first they were not permitted to land. Their books were taken from them and burned by the hangman. They were thrown into prison, the windows of which were boarded up lest anyone should speak to them, and for such misdemeanor a fine of £5 was decreed.

Later on, four Quakers were executed at Boston. The boxes of all Quakers were searched for "hellish pamphlets and erroneous books."

In 1662, Anne Coleman, Mary Tompkins and Alice Ambrose, after being imprisoned at Salisbury by order of magistrates and whipped at the cart's tail through three towns, came to Berwick and held a meeting. "Shubal Drummer, the priest of the place, came also hither and sate quiet. And the meeting being ended he stood up and said, 'Good women, ye have spoken well and prayed well, pray what is your rule?' They answering, 'The spirit of God is our rule and it ought to be yours and all men's to walk

"Beginnings of New England," p. 118.

by.' He replied, 'It is not my rule, nor I hope ever shall be.'"¹ No other meetings in Maine were recorded for more than sixty years.

June 21, 1681, William Screven and Humphrey Churchwood, of Kittery, were baptized into the fellowship of the First Baptist Church in Boston. The following year Screven was ordained on petition of Churchwood and other Baptists at Kittery for the purpose of establishing a church there. Though a man of considerable influence and prominence, the magistrates soon haled him into court for not attending the Established Church on Sundays. Later Screven was fined and imprisoned, and on release forbidden to preach or to keep any private exercises at his own house or elsewhere upon the Lord's days, either in Kittery or any other place within the limits of this province, and is for the future enjoined "to observe public worship of God in our public assemblies upon the Lord's days according to the law here established in this Province upon such penalties as the law requires upon his neglect of the premises."² Screven, however, paid little heed to the order, and when again arrested "did in the presence of the said Court and President promise to engage to depart out of the Province within a very short time."

A church organization was recognized by the First Church, Boston, September 26, 1682, Pastor Hull, Thomas Skinner and Philip Squire coming to Kittery from Boston for that purpose. Persecution continued. In his perplexity Screven thought of Roger Williams, banished from Massachusetts in 1635 and establishing a real religious liberty in Rhode Island, or of Thomas Hooker of Newtown, who from the ecclesiastical tyranny of Boston had fled with his congregation to the banks of the Connecticut in 1636 and founded Hartford, which has been called "the birthplace of American democracy."

So from Maine went forth a band of exiles for their faith. Before June, 1684, Screven and his church associates left Kittery and established near Charleston, S. C., the first Baptist church in the South. The Baptists have long been the largest and most powerful denomination in all the Southern States, and the beginning of the organization of the movement was with the little Baptist church of Kittery, self-exiled for conscience sake. It is of interest to note that Chaplain Hezekiah Smith, of Haverhill, who nearly a century later founded the first permanent Baptist church in Maine, was licensed as an evangelist by the church in Charleston, S. C., which William Screven founded.³

At the close of the seventeenth century the only churches left in Maine were of the Standing Order, while a few Indians far from the coast kept the tradition of the black-robed priests who had been driven away so long before.

With the eighteenth century in accord with the Puritan system, the

¹Sewel, "History Quakers," I, p. 615.

²Burrage, "History of Baptists of Maine," p. 19.

³Burrage, "History of the Baptists in Maine," p. 28.

churches advanced exactly as fast as did the population. In 1700 Samuel Moody began his pastorate of forty-seven years at York, to be succeeded by Isaac Lyman, who served sixty-one years. Of Moody it was said that "his only salary was the prayers of his people." The eulogy on his tombstone closes thus: "For his further character, read 2 Cor., 3rd chapter and six first verses."

The Berwick church was formed in 1702. John Wade, its first pastor, dying within the year, Jeremiah Wise, "eminent for scholarship, and piety," served it for forty-nine years. Falmouth (now Portland) was wholly destroyed by the Indians in 1692. When settlers came again in 1718, steps were taken to secure a minister. Thomas Smith, born in Boston, at fourteen entering Harvard, from which he was graduated in 1720, coming to Portland in 1726 as chaplain to the troops, also ministered to about forty families resident there. March 8, 1727, a church was organized and Mr. Smith ordained. Four churches assisted,—York, Wells, Berwick and Kittery being the only ones in the district. Parson Smith served the church for sixty-eight years, and wrote his experiences in his famous "Diary," which is one of the most important historical documents of the entire period. For the first half of the eighteenth century the Congregational churches had full possession of the Maine field. There were some murmurings of dissent, however, and occasionally a day of fasting and prayer was ordered against the "disease of Quakerism," but the town ministers of the Standing Order attended to the preaching of the truth as they saw it, with dignity if not with enthusiasm. Men went to church as they paid their taxes. Many of the early town ministers were not Congregationalists, but Presbyterians. They had come from the north of Ireland or Scotland, and were university men. In 1729 Robert Rutherford removed from Ireland with a colony and settled in Maine. He preached at Bristol, and Pemaquid and at Brunswick from 1735 to 1742.

Cotton Mather wrote to James Woodside at Casco bay: "'Tis more than time that your brethren here should give you welcome to the western side of the Atlantic. The glorious providence of God our Saviour which has been at work in the removal of so many people who are of so desirable a character as we see come and coming from the north of Ireland into the north of New England hath doubtless very great intention in it, and what we do we know not now but we shall know hereafter.'" Great anxiety was felt in the north of Ireland over the departure of so many ministers and people.

In 1734 William McClanethan, Presbyterian evangelist, was at Boothbay. Alexander McLane was at Bristol in Revolutionary days; his meeting house at Walpole still remains, an object of historical pilgrimage. In 1784 Dr. Nathaniel Whitaker, Presbyterian minister at Canaan, was writing to Dr. Obadiah Williams of Winslow (Waterville) concerning the founding of a "seminary of learning in these parts where a too quick return to bar-

*Mather Manuscript, quoted by Briggs, "American Presbyterianism," p. 189.

barism is apparent." John Murray, with the spirit of McCheyne, had a remarkable ministry at Boothbay from 1767 to 1780. The first great revival in the history of the State attended his abundant labors, and his journal is a devotional book of the first order. Though the Presbyterian ministry were exceedingly able and churches were gathered at Georgetown, New Castle, Brunswick, Boothbay, Bristol, Topsham, Warren, Gray, Canaan and Turner, largely through lack of the offices of Presbytery and Synod their churches became Congregational or dwindled away, and in 1820 not one was left.

In 1730 a meeting of Friends was established in Kittery. In 1743 a meeting for worship was instituted at Falmouth, and a number of other meetings resulted from the missionary labors of those who felt led of the Inner Light to visit other towns. Before 1800 meetings were established at Kittery, Portland, Berwick, Harpswell, Durham, Windham, Vassalborough, Fairfield, Limington, Winthrop, Green and Leeds, Lewiston, Bristol, Sidney, Gorham, 2nd Vassalborough, Dresden and Scarborough.

In 1764 Rev. William Wiswell, pastor of the Third Congregational Church, Casco, "declared for the church" and went to England for ordination. Mr. Wiswell returned May 7, 1765, with the promise of £20 per year from the Society for Propagating the Gospel in Foreign Parts, and served as pastor for eleven years until in 1775 he went aboard the British warship of Captain Mowatt, and sent to his wardens that "he be with them as minister no more." In 1770 the Episcopalians had petitioned to be relieved of taxes for the Standing Order. This was refused, but was granted in 1772. St. Paul's Church in Falmouth was burned when the British burned Portland, October 18, 1775, and another building was not erected until 1787.

The church at Gardiner, which was established by Dr. Sylvester Gardiner in 1771, now known as Christ Church, has been one of the most efficient and influential of the Episcopal parishes of Maine. The "Frontier Missionary," Rev. Jacob Bailey, was at Dresden for two years until the Revolution. In 1800 but two Episcopal churches existed in Maine.

The Baptists were back in Maine in 1767. Hezekiah Smith, pastor of the Baptist church in Haverhill, a graduate of Princeton College, soon to be a chaplain in the Revolutionary army and a friend of Washington, possessed of the missionary spirit, travelled through New Hampshire to Maine and preached at Dr. Lord's at Berwick June 23, 1767.* He pursued his journey as far as Falmouth, preaching in several towns and baptizing ten persons who became members of the church at Haverhill. In 1768 he organized a Baptist church in Gorham, and as the members thereupon declined to pay the tax for the support of the town minister, they were immediately sued. For the tax of six dollars, "a good riding beast" was taken from one member. On the ground that he had complied with the law, he petitioned that the court would, in scripture language, "set him on his own

*Burrage, "History of Baptists in Maine," p. 29.

beast." This it declined to do. Jonathan Parsons in his sermon at Newburyport in 1774, dedicated to John Hancock, said, "We need not go back for proof to make it appear that men have attempted to enslave their brethren in ecclesiastical concerns. For all those that forcibly take away the money or property from their neighbors to support a ministry which they cannot in conscience attend, are guilty of spiritual tyranny." The struggle for freedom in worship was on. The Baptists contended stoutly for liberty, but the Standing Order saw that it meant the overthrow of the Puritan system. June 28, 1768, Mr. Smith organized a church in Berwick (North) which is the oldest existing Baptist church in the State. Among the soldiers who after the Revolution were rewarded with farms in Maine, was Job Macomber. At Bowdoin he found a layman, James Potter, an unordained evangelist. A letter of Macomber to his pastor at Middleborough, Isaac Backus, led Isaac Case of that church to undertake missionary service in Maine. He visited many towns, proving himself both an efficient evangelist and a wise builder. Baptist churches multiplied and were soon gathered into "Associations." May 24, 1787, delegates from churches in Thomaston, where Isaac Case was pastor, Bowdoinham and Harpswell, met in the house of Job Macomber in Bowdoinham and formed the Bowdoinham Association. By the close of the eighteenth century there were forty-two Baptist churches in the District of Maine, with a membership of 2,186. The Association arranged for "missionary journeys" on the part of the pastors, by which preaching and religious influence were carried to the destitute fields and scattered settlements of the State. It was the beginning of the Missionary Society which took form in 1804. The first missionary was Rev. John Tripp of Hebron, who went "to the eastward in January and February, 1801."

The last decade of the eighteenth century saw the coming to Maine of another church destined to be an important factor in its religious life. The apostle or missionary of New England Methodism was Jesse Lee. Born in Virginia, March 12, 1758, he became a preacher at eighteen, and a companion of Asbury, first Bishop of American Methodism. In 1775 Lee found no pulpit open to him in Boston, but he preached on the Common, to the delight of his hearers. Methodism believed that religion was introduced by a psychological experience called conversion. It is claimed that "Methodism gave to religion a democratic God who chose to save all who will quit their sin and come to Him by faith. It smote hip and thigh an aristocratic God who automatically chose to save or damn whom he would irrespective of character."¹⁰ Methodism depended on its enthusiastic preaching of a free gospel, and its exceedingly effectual organization. John Wesley had a genius for employing for high purposes the talents of common men. At the conference in Lynn, August 1, 1793, Lee says, "I was myself appointed to the Province of Maine, to travel through that country or form a circuit where I thought best. As there had never been any Methodist

¹⁰L. J. Birney, "New England Methodism," p. 76.

preaching there, we had no one to give us a particular account of the place or people, but it was commonly understood that they were in want of preaching and that our manner of travelling and preaching would be very suitable for that part of the country."¹³ So the Methodist church, like the Baptist and the Catholic before it, came in the person of a missionary. The Congregational came with the authority of the State; the Quaker, led only by the "Inner Light"; the Presbyterian, by loyalty to old North of Ireland memories. Lee preached the first Methodist sermon in Maine, at the house of Elisha Ayer, in Saco, September 10, 1793. Considering the attitude of religious people to the new movement, his text seems not over tactful: it was, "Behold ye despisers and wonder and perish," Acts 13, 41. At Portland he preached in Elijah Kellogg's church, September 12, 1793. He pursued his journey to Readfield, Hallowell and farther east. There were no physical facts to embarrass him, so in his mind he divided Maine into circuits, calling the first, Readfield circuit, claiming the State for his King as much as Cabot and Weymouth had claimed it for England and De Mont for France. In 1794 Philip Wager was appointed presiding elder of Readfield Circuit, which embraced all Maine. The first Methodist class was formed in Monmouth, November 1, 1794. In 1798 the New England Conference met in Readfield, in and about the first Methodist meeting house in Maine which was dedicated November 17, 1794. Bishop Asbury presided and about fifteen hundred persons attended. The doctrines of the Methodists gave warrant for enthusiasm, but the ministers of the Standing Order were much scandalized that such a noisy turbulent thing should be called religion. It was, however, a matter of principle with the rejoicing believers. Later on the first Methodist church in Portland became divided, one party feeling that when the loud shouts of "Glory" and "Amen" were discouraged, the spirit of worship would be quenched. The quiet element survived.

In 1781 there was born in Bristol, Joshua Soule. Without school advantages, he had the education which great talent finds in the acceptance of great principles and in dealing with great events. He was a preacher at seventeen. While himself presiding elder of the Kennebec District, he was a delegate to the General Conference in 1808, and there drafted the plan for a delegated General Conference which was adopted and has proved an essential feature in the working of American Methodism. Later as book agent of the Methodist Book Concern, he founded the *Methodist Review*, and was elected bishop in 1824. Thus did the struggling little Methodist church of Maine give to the nation one of its ablest bishops, and to the church a vital principle of its development. Not without controversy did the Methodists carry forward their campaign. None of their preachers were college men, and some of their doctrinal statements seemed to the members of the Standing Order not only crude but false. There was, however, only one instance of real persecution. The presiding elder who sought to

¹³"Methodism in Maine," vol. II, p. 6.

introduce Methodism into Castine was drummed out of town. When Maine became a State in 1820, there were three districts with presiding elders—Asa Heath, D. Hutchinson and B. Jones, 27 circuits, 32 travelling preachers, and 6,017 members. The Methodist circuit rider found in Maine, as did his brother in the land of the Hoosiers, romance, toil, and an opportunity of which he made the most. In 1797 John Cheverus, afterward Roman Catholic Bishop of Boston, was at Damariscotta, holding services in the barn of William Cottrill and ministering to the Kavanaghs and other Roman Catholic families, and suggesting the movement which erected at New Castle the oldest Roman Catholic church now standing in Maine. He visited also the Penobscot and the Passamaquoddy Indians.

The revolt from the stern doctrines unflinchingly preached by the Calvinistic and Arminian ministers, called Universalism, appeared in Maine in 1799. New Gloucester had been settled by families of Universalist sentiment from Gloucester, Massachusetts, who proceeded to give the new settlement not only a name but a faith. In 1802 Thomas Barnes from Woodstock, Connecticut, located in Poland, was ordained at Gray over Norway, New Gloucester, Falmouth, and Gray, whence he extended his labors to Livermore, Turner, Danville and Freeport. A funeral sermon preached by Mr. Barnes led to the formation of his church. The orthodox minister had refused to conduct the funeral of a suicide in a family of his parish, saying that "his feelings would not allow it, and that he knew no text in the Bible that could give any comfort." Mr. Barnes was equal to the occasion, and preached from 1 Cor., 4:5. "He's got it; he's got it," exclaimed the other minister who was present. "The Eastern Association" of Universalist churches was soon formed but their numbers increased slowly. Sylvanus Cobb, born at Norway, July 17, 1798, and becoming a Universalist by his study of the Bible, entered upon his ministry at Waterville in 1821 and in 1826 organized there the first church of communicants of his faith in the State. Mr. Cobb became an ardent temperance advocate, and received a letter from President Lincoln warmly thanking him for "the able and masterly defence of the contemplated presidential policy of emancipation." The Universalists interested themselves in civic matters, and we find the church at Dover furnishing its church building as the court house of Piscataquis county in 1838. The Universalist weekly paper, the *Gospel Banner*, published at Augusta, was for many years an efficient aid in all denominational work. "The Eastern Association" of Universalist Churches became the State Convention in 1828, with four minor organizations. The denomination has been slow in growth, but has enrolled a number of very strong churches which have contributed their full share to the religious life and spirit of the State.

A new denomination, the Free Baptist, had its origin in the work of Benjamin Randall, baptised into Berwick Baptist Church, who having heard Whitefield and being led to conversion by the news of his death, began to preach what the great evangelist had made his message, man's lost

condition, an atonement sufficient for all, and a ringing call to all sinners to lay hold of it by repentance and faith. Without training of the schools, Randall knew only what the Bible said to him, and had little desire to accept as authoritative what it had said to John Calvin. It was a surprise to him to find himself out of harmony with his Baptist brethren. Gathering a church at New Durham, N. H., Randall travelled as evangelist through a large part of Maine, and many churches were organized. It was a movement of the people. For fifty years the denomination did not have a single minister who received a stated salary that would enable him to give his whole time to his ministry. The largest membership was attained in 1841. The lack of an educated ministry, the ready hospitality to all comers who seemed to have "unction," made frequent defection from the church inevitable. The Bullock Movement in southern Maine, which was opposed to written church covenants, written sermons, temperance, missions, and much more; and the startling doctrines of Miller, who convinced many thousands of Maine people that the world would end in 1843, led away many from church membership. A very remarkable ministry, however, was performed by the Free Baptists. A service of untold value was rendered to rural Maine. Bates College, with its constantly enlarging resources and influence, Maine Central Institute, one of the best academies in the State, are the fruits of its heroic sacrifice and loyalty. A State Mission Society was organized in 1834. The success of its work appears in the strength of the churches at Augusta, Bath, Portland, Bangor, Lewiston, Saco and Biddeford. The society was the destined agency to carry the denomination to the cities. The Free Baptists were denied a charter by the New Hampshire Legislature of 1836 on the ground that they preached that the Bible taught the abolition of slavery. It was granted in 1838. John Chaney of Farmington drew up a temperance pledge in 1826 for the churches, whereupon an old minister exclaimed, "that's right, but a little ahead of the age." The first missionary of the General Home Mission Society was Rev. George E. Knowlton, of Maine. Storer College was named for John Storer of Maine, who subscribed \$10,000 to establish it. The first Free Baptist church in the South was organized in Beaufort, S. C., and two days afterward had 177 members, all ex-slaves. Rev. William F. Eaton of Maine was in charge, and Rufus Deering, of Portland, made the frame of the meeting house and shipped it to Hilton Head. As the years went on it became evident that the doctrinal differences between the Baptists and the Free Baptists had disappeared. The Baptists were preaching the same gospel and the same doctrines that Randall preached. The churches were doing the same work on the same ground. Leaders of the denomination sought co-operation first and then union. Among them was Dr. Burrage who, in his paper, *Zion's Advocate*, removed many misunderstandings. Dr. Alfred Williams Anthony of Lewiston, long secretary of the Interdenominational Commission, proved a wise leader in bringing the denominations together, which was effected in 1915, and the Free Baptists became a part

of the United Baptist Convention of Maine, the local churches retaining the name under which so much had been accomplished. This is the first instance in the United States of the union of two great denominations. It may be prophetic.

During the nineteenth century the Congregational church proved itself the successor of the Pilgrims rather than of the Puritans. The aid from taxation which had been granted because these churches were the first in the field, was withdrawn. The Congregationalists were quite ready to stand beside the Baptists in declaring for the separation of Church and State. The Congregational churches from the first had been led by an educated ministry, whose preaching had appealed to the best life of the community and had shaped that life. The able preaching of truth was the main reliance for the extension of the church, and the results justified the means. A strong, conservative, intellectual church was built up, loyal to fundamentals, hospitable to newly discovered truth, a leader in all matters of civic life, and national and worldwide service. Its ministers were instrumental in founding Bowdoin College, have always been prominent in its management, and have furnished the remarkable roll of presidents from President Allen to William De Witt Hyde, whom the whole State will not soon cease to mourn. The work of the Missionary Society, organized in 1807, was missionary indeed. By arrangement, different ministers left their home churches and preached in places destitute of church privileges for two or more weeks. Later on, after small churches had been formed, the Society sent men for a few months labor who would be suitable pastors of the encouraged and enlarged churches. The first graduate of Andover Theological Seminary, Rev. Ephraim Abbott, became the missionary of the Maine Missionary Society in the Passamaquoddy region. He was graduated at Harvard in 1806, and received a commission in 1810 to perform a mission of two months in the eastern parts of Maine. In 1840 it was said that four-fifths of the Congregational churches in Maine had received the aid of the Missionary Society.

Ever regarding it the duty of the church to provide for an educated ministry and efficient missionary service, the Congregational church founded Bangor Theological Seminary in 1814. That school has been served by an able faculty, has trained some of the strongest ministers and missionaries in the denomination, has an admirable location in the heart of Bangor, and an excellent equipment. It has opened the opportunity of the ministry to many young men who otherwise would not have found it. It has raised the standard of ministerial efficiency. It has strongly supported movements of reform and civic betterment; it has never been silent in hours of religious or civic or national perplexity. Interpreting the past, it has a message for today. The "Convocation Week," organized by the genius of President Beach, brings together some of the ablest religious and literary men of the nation to give their best to the assembled ministers of Maine. Through Bangor Seminary the Congregationalism of Maine is rendering an eminent

service to the world."¹² The system of Conferences in which all the churches of a section of the State are represented, which in turn form part of a wider organization was devised and put into operation by the Congregationalists of Maine. It expresses the very spirit of Congregationalism, and has now been adopted by the entire country where Congregational churches exist. There are fifteen Congregational Conferences in Maine, following substantially the county lines from Aroostook to York. The apportionment system for benevolences was employed as early as 1833. Efforts toward co-operation by the denominations instead of rivalry, were made nearly thirty years before the days of the Inter-denominational Commission. Congregationalism in Maine, great in its resources, more efficiently organized than ever before and fulfilling the modern conception of service to the world, is a typical expression of the religious life of Maine.

In 1786 James Freeman introduced a Unitarian liturgy at King's Chapel, Boston, and failing to secure Episcopal ordination was ordained by the church itself after a form prepared by Governor Bowdoin. Five years later a Unitarian church was formed at Portland by Thomas Oxnard, who had become Unitarian through study of the works of Priestly and Lindsay. Freeman declared that "the Unitarian doctrine will soon become the prevailing opinion of the country." During the last years of the pastorate of Dr. Deane, the historic First Church of Portland had become largely Unitarian in sentiment. It shared the liberal revolt against the emotionalism of Whitefield and the conception of God which occasioned it. It was antagonized by the monastic severities and stern doctrines of Edward Payson, one of the greatest of Maine ministers, then recently settled as colleague to Dr. Kellogg at the Second Church. Rejecting a candidate called by the church, the parish decided on Rev. Ichabod Nichols, a teacher in Harvard. The church concurred, and Dr. Nichols on June 7, 1809, began his remarkable ministry in Portland. Of him Dr. John Carroll Perkins said, "He was a writer who said what his own age needed. He was a speaker who gathered about him the best minds in Portland and held them through two generations." Dr. Channing called him "my superior." With such a start, great things were to be expected of the Unitarians in Maine, and they have been realized. The church has never been large, but it has ministered to many of the leading minds of the State. The principle of free thought in religion proved its strength and its weakness. Reverent minds found in it scope for the rational worship of God and loving service of men. Minds of an opposite character found neither motive nor restraint, and regarded it with indifference. Colonel Vaughan of Hallowell was called the "Bulwark of Unitarianism in America." Dr. Sheldon, after his presidency of Waterville College, became the founder of Unitarian churches in Bath and Waterville. The American Unitarian Association was formed in Boston in 1825 as the central agency of the Denomination. The present

¹²"History of Bangor Theological Seminary," by Prof. Calvin M. Clark.

Maine Unitarian Association was organized at Saco in 1878. It includes twenty-seven churches, and attends to the financial matters of the Denomination. Its president is Chief Justice Leslie C. Cornish. His predecessor, ex-Chief Justice William Penn Whitehouse, is president of the State Conference of Unitarian Churches which affords the denomination the means for fellowship and for united action upon all current issues. The church has ministered to a remarkably large proportion of the men in high official positions in the State. It affords what may be called the University type of the religious life of the State. "A denomination not of free thinkers but thinkers in freedom."

In the new State of Maine the Baptists made steady progress. The Missionary Society of 1804 was supplemented by the Baptist Convention of 1824, both doing missionary work in unoccupied fields as well as trying to develop out of the independent churches which their polity organized a unified denomination. The Associations, made up of groups of churches usually within county lines, helped toward this end. The doctrine of the freedom of conscience even in the interpretation of Scripture, saved the Baptists from heresy trials. The churches came together as they worked together in great enterprises. For the education of the ministry they founded the Maine Literary and Theological Institution in 1818 which became Waterville College in 1820, leaving its charter absolutely free from credal requirements. They supported missionaries abroad, from Boardman, first graduate of Waterville College, who became the Apostle to the Karens, down through a long and remarkably useful line. They undertook to evangelize the State, and new churches and Associations were formed. The annual church letters to these bodies usually lamented the low estate of Zion, "and made it appear that there was little religion among the Baptists," but they got on. These laments were intended to awaken conscience and stimulate zeal. Revivals, notably those of 1843 or 1858, brought large additions to the churches. In 1867 the two missionary organizations united in the Maine Baptist Missionary Convention. Dr. Joseph Ricker became Convention Secretary in 1871, and to his statesmanship during a service of twenty years is due the foundation of the new era for the Baptists. The gift of ex-Governor Abner Coburn of \$100,000 was a vote of confidence. Daniel S. Ford of Boston afterward bequeathed to the Convention nearly \$200,000, and smaller gifts multiplied. From this time the efficiency of the Convention increased. Dr. Albert T. Dunn succeeded Dr. Ricker in the secretaryship, and since 1904 Dr. Irving B. Mower has been its executive head. Industrious, kindly, catholic in spirit, Dr. Mower has fostered every interest of the denomination and his influence appeared in that dramatic moment when the Maine Free Baptist Associations marched down from the Free Baptist Church in Waterville to the Baptist church where the Maine Baptist Missionary Convention was holding its last session, and the two bodies joined in forming the United Baptist Convention of Maine, and elected Hon. Carl E. Milliken president. This union makes the United Bap-

tist Convention the representative of 33,647 members, gathered in over 400 churches and 17 Associations. The contribution to religious liberty made by the Baptists and unreservedly recognized is now supplemented by their great service to country, civic righteousness, education, charity, reform and evangelism. In all of these it is surpassed by none. The exiled church has become the largest Protestant denomination in the State, with resources beyond the fondest dreams of the fathers.

John Wesley thought that the new impulse and inspiration given to the world by Methodism would spend itself in one hundred fifty years. Not so in Maine. The Methodists "demonstrated what could be done with a maximum of personality and a minimum of material resource." In 1828 there were sixty travelling preachers. The churches multiplied. The determined effort to provide education has given the efficient and famous school at Kent's Hill, whose Woman's College began to confer academic degrees in 1860; and the Seminary at Bucksport, for which preparation was started in the very first year of the East Maine Conference. In the Anti-Slavery movement the Methodist General Conference was too slow for Maine Methodists, who charged it with being "so conservative as to allow all that the South could ask." Later they rejoiced in a real Anti-Slavery Conference in the State, and sadly but with conviction voted in General Conference for the measure that led to the secession of the Methodist Episcopal Church in the South. For many years, before the union of the Baptists and Free Baptists, the Methodist was the largest Protestant denomination in the State. The Methodists have been in the front line of every reform. Despite the cardinal principle that the world is the special field of Methodism, and every part of it a Methodist parish, Rev. C. S. Cummings made the suggestion that led to the formation of the Interdenominational Commission of Maine. The present effort of the church may be stated in what the daughter of Hugh Price Hughes said of her father: "He recovered for his church its ancient passion for the souls of men, he set that passion in the stream of modern life."

In 1820 the Catholic church in Maine was weak indeed. People of that faith, however, began to come into the lumber section in northern Maine, where now are large towns almost exclusively Catholic, and where schools, convents and hospitals of high order have been developed. The manufacturing centers of Maine, Lewiston, Biddeford, Waterville and others have now a large Catholic population whose devotion is shown in splendid churches, fine parochial schools, and institutions of charity and of higher education. In 1853 the See of Maine and New Hampshire was constituted, and Rev. Daniel W. Bacon was appointed bishop. There were only six churches and eight priests in Maine and New Hampshire. "Know-nothingism" arrayed the mob against the Catholics. The church at Bath occupied by them was first desecrated by a mob and then burned. Rev. John Bapst was by vote of town meeting required to keep away from Ellsworth, and, on his return to minister to his parishioners, was on October

15, 1854, carried out of town on a rail and tarred and feathered. The attempt to lay the corner stone of a church in Bath, November 15, 1855, failed. Bangor would not suffer a Catholic church on State street, but the foundation of St. John's was laid October 12, 1856. In Lewiston the old Baptist church was bought and moved to Lincoln street, where soon after it was burned by a mob. Despite all opposition, the Catholics made rapid progress. Bishop Bacon was indefatigable and never lost courage. When he died, November 5, 1874, his churches had been multiplied by ten, twenty-three schools had been established, and there was a Catholic population of 80,000. The splendid cathedral at Portland was a fitting memorial. Bishop Healy was consecrated at Portland, June 2, 1875, and a very able, energetic and successful episcopate began. Great strides were made in church building, education, and charity. St. Mary's College at Van Buren was established and placed under the direction of the Marist Fathers of France. New Hampshire was withdrawn from the See of Maine in 1884. Bishop Louis S. Walsh has guided the church to yet greater attainment and efficiency, especially in the lines of hospital and relief work, while marked development has come to the schools. Some Maine towns along the northern border are about as free from Protestants as Puritan Massachusetts was from Catholics. The church has been served by efficient Bishops, from Bishop Cheverus to Bishop Walsh and by a body of devoted priests. The Roman Catholic church of Maine has been able to do well its part in the great world system to which it belongs. Its American patriotism has had fine demonstration in the Great War. The statistics of its work are the best exhibition of its importance in the religious life of the State: Churches, 143; chapels, 29; priests, 143; college for boys, 1; academies for girls, 11; orphan asylums, 7; parochial schools, 47, with attendance, 14,637; Homes for Aged Women, 1; Schools for Indian Children, 3; Catholic population, 131,638.

Beyond question, some of the most intense religious conviction of the people of Maine has found expression in the smaller organizations whose history the limits of this article will not allow us to trace. These adherents have foregone the advantages of a larger fellowship in order to be true to what they regarded as essential in religion. There are, in the language of William James, "varieties in religious experience." Among these organizations are the Advent Christian Church, with 84 churches, 75 ministers and 2,500 members; the Friends, with 23 meeting houses, a membership of 1,800, and an important school, Oak Grove Seminary; the Seventh Day Adventist Church has 8 ministers, 18 churches and a membership of 811; the Christian Church has a membership of 3,600 and 35 ministers; the Disciples, churches 7, members 500; The New Jerusalem (Swedenborgian) churches 3, membership 131; Evangelical Lutheran, churches 7, ministers 6, members 1,445; "Church of God," churches 12, ministers 16, members 250; Presbyterian, 3 churches, 3 ministers and 503 members. The Christian Science Church, latest of religious comers, began its work in

1892. Many other organizations express the faith of small groups of people and afford them opportunity for fellowship in serving the ends to which they are devoted.

The Christian womanhood of the State may be regarded as the highest expression of its religious life. In worship, work and prayer the women have taken the lead. Shortly after the going of American missionaries to India, the women in many churches formed what they called "Female Missionary Cent Societies," to aid in their support. These societies were formed in Congregational and Baptist churches as early as 1815. The sums received were very considerable. Later, in every large denomination Woman's Missionary Societies were formed, also Aid Societies for the extension of home work. A considerable number of women have ably served in the pulpit; a vast host has made the Sunday school the preparatory school for the church. The religion of the women has been not a thing of theory and rigid definition, but of beautiful deeds, fine appreciation and noblest feeling. In school and college and hospital and mission field throughout the world, the religious life of the women of Maine is blessing the world.

The religious life of the State is expressed in many organizations in whose support the denominations unite. Oldest of these is the Bible Society of Maine, organized in 1809. No Bibles were published in this country when it was founded. It early employed colporteurs and Bible missionaries who visited every home, no matter how remote, and provided either through sale or gift, that none should be left without a copy of the Bible. Maine was the first State to take up this work, and today is the largest area on the globe that is thus systematically visited. For forty years the Bible Society visitors have furnished the churches with an accurate religious census. This is done town by town and county by county, the State requiring seven years for its canvass. Fifty languages are spoken in Maine, and in each of these the Society has a Bible. Over 8,000 copies of the New Testament have been given to the soldier boys in the Great War. The distribution of Bibles has averaged 11,000 annually for the past ten years. The pioneer service of this Society opens the way for the work of other missionary agencies and should be reckoned among the strong religious forces of the State. The religious census of any town proves the need of the work of the Society.

Maine churches were early in the Sunday school field. Before 1820 there was an organization of all the Sunday schools in Portland under one general control. Each of the leading denominations has maintained Sunday school organizations which have been kept abreast of the Sunday school progress of New England. The Maine State Sunday School Association was formed at Lewiston, September 14, 1869. Edward Eggleston and Bishop Vincent were present. Through the efforts of the Association, the State has now sixteen county organizations which hold annual conventions, 1,200 Sunday Schools, 12,000 officers and teachers, and over 100,000

scholars are affiliated with the State Association. A general secretary and an adult department field secretary give their entire time to the work while the departments and business are ably conducted by experts who make it a labor of Christian service. The State Conventions have been notable occasions by the addresses and instruction of the most eminent Sunday school workers in the country, and the enthusiastic response by some of the most practical Christian workers of Maine. The Sunday schools are becoming efficient departments of Religious Education.

As the Puritans founded Harvard College, so, as soon as the churches of Maine attained any strength, they established schools and colleges. Bowdoin College, opened in 1802, was under the fostering care of the Congregationalists. The academies were many of them the direct work of the churches. The Baptists founded Waterville College, aided in its endowment, and secured for it the fine system of preparatory schools, including Hebron Academy, Coburn Institute at Waterville, Ricker Institute at Houlton, and Higgins Institute at Charleston. This has been heralded as the best system of schools possessed by a Protestant church in any State of the Union. The Free Baptists established Bates College, Cobb Divinity School, and Maine Central Institute; the Methodists, Kent's Hill and the East Maine Conference Seminary at Bucksport. The Universalists have been behind the work of Westbrook Seminary. The Catholics have supported their parochial schools, academies and their college. The Friends have an excellent school in Oak Grove Seminary. These schools and colleges were founded at great sacrifice, primarily to express and to guide the religious life of the State, as well as to serve it by higher education. Their graduates in the ministry, missions and public service, have carried its influence throughout the world.

Journalism.—The *Christian Mirror* was established by the Congregationalists at Portland in 1824. An unofficial censor soon wrote to the editor inquiring whether he thought it would be right to read the paper on Sunday, as it contained some secular matter; e. g., Legislative proceedings. The editor replied sympathetically, that while it was his policy "to keep out of the paper everything pernicious and everything useless, it might be well to reserve the secular parts, which were quite necessary to the subscription list, for perusal during the week." True to its name, the paper mirrored Congregationalism and was a very helpful agency of the denomination, especially during the editorship of Dr. Israel P. Warren. It was finally sold to the *Congregationalist*. *Zion's Advocate*, established in 1828, remains the organ of the Baptists. It has survived all the State denominational weeklies of New England and has deserved its continuance. It has had eminent editors—Dr. Adam Wilson, Dr. Shailer, Dr. S. K. Smith, Dr. J. B. Foster, Dr. Henry S. Burrage and later Dr. J. K. Wilson. Its present editor is Rev. William Abbott Smith, son of a former editor. The *Morning Star* carried to Free Baptist homes for many years an inspiring message, and was strongly devotional in spirit. The *Wesleyan Journal* had a difficult his-

tory for ten years, and was then taken over by *Zion's Herald*. The *Gospel Banner* was the able exponent of Universalism in the life of Maine. The *North East* is now the organ of the Episcopal church. *Congregationalism in Maine* in its bi-monthly issues, presents the work of the Congregational churches and ably seconds that work. A similar service to the Universalist denomination is rendered by the monthly *Banner*. The *Catholic Opinion* of Lewiston is no longer published.

In all matters of reform, the churches of Maine have been leaders. The anti-slavery movement in Maine was largely supported by the churches, and the most ringing statements of the righteousness of the cause of the slave and the national duty of immediate emancipation are in the resolutions adopted by the church conventions. Maine felt that Christianity demanded the abolition of slavery, and based its action on that ground.

The same was true in the line of temperance and prohibition. Neal Dow wrote in the days of the struggle for the enactment of the Prohibitory Law, that two-thirds of the reliable workers for it were ministers. The voice of the pulpit has ever been for temperance. At the State Conference of the Congregational Church at Fort Fairfield in 1896, the following resolutions were passed:

"Resolved, That we believe in the fair, honest and impartial enforcement of the laws; that we believe in the total suppression of the liquor traffic; that for that end we will pray and work and vote.

"Resolved, That the Moderator of this Conference appoint a committee of three to co-operate with the other Christian denominations of this State for the purpose of organizing a Civic League, looking to the enforcement of law and a higher standard of civic righteousness."

Other denominations concurred, and on March 29, 1897, in Waterville, the Christian Civic League of Maine was formed. The purpose of the League is stated in Act II. of its constitution: "Its purpose shall be, by all means at our command, and by co-operation with other existing agencies: 1, to educate the people in all that pertains to good citizenship; 2, to arouse and maintain throughout the State a reverence for laws, their impartial execution, and the choice of competent officials to that end." It is simply the churches of the State working for civic righteousness and to uphold law. The League has had the leadership of strong men—Dr. W. F. Berry as superintendent, and Dr. C. E. Owen, as secretary, have given to it many years of wise and efficient work, while Rev. H. N. Pringle and E. H. Emery and others have labored for shorter periods. It is one of the best hated and most beneficent organizations in the State. Its methods are educational, but where education fails, it tries law enforcement with most excellent results. Maine was the first State in the Union to organize such a League, which is the direct expression of the religious life of the State brought to bear without partizanship upon all questions of civic order.

Maine is the cradle of another religious organization that has gone around the world again and again, the Young People's Society of Christian

Endeavor. February 2, 1881, Rev. Francis E. Clark, pastor of the Williston Church in Portland, called his young people together and proposed the constitution of a new society. Its purpose was service, and to that service the members were to bind themselves with a solemn pledge. Lines of work were marked out to be undertaken by committees; in short, it was a calling of young people to the colors for real service. The pledge, which has been little changed, is as follows:

"Trusting in the Lord Jesus Christ for strength, I promise Him that I will strive to do whatever He would like to have me do; that I will pray to Him and read the Bible every day; and that, just so far as I know how, throughout my whole life, I will endeavor to lead a Christian life. As an Active Member, I promise to be true to all my duties, to be present at, and take some part, aside from singing, in every meeting, unless hindered by some reason which I can conscientiously give to my Lord and Master, Jesus Christ. If obliged to be absent from the monthly consecration meeting, I will, if possible, send an excuse for absence to the Society."

None realized at the evening's close what had been done that night, but the foundation had been laid of an organization that now has place in more than eighty denominations, with vigorous unions in every one of the United States, Great Britain, China, Japan, India, South Africa, Brazil, Australia, New Zealand, Burma, Canada, Germany, Sweden, France, Spain, etc. More than 79,000 Christian Endeavor Societies are at work, with more than 3,900,000 members. The local society is wholly under the control of the local church. The program of work includes all forms of Christian service to all classes. It is a school of religion, civics, patriotism, missions, charity. It comes to the youth with a challenge to the best that is in them, and an immediate opportunity for its exercise. The Society now exists in seventy-nine different countries which belong to the World's Christian Endeavor Union, formed in Boston in 1895; its constitution has been translated into eighty languages. Among the "Fruits of Christian Endeavor" are noted: Some 10,000,000 former members now more useful and active in church work; 4,000,000 associate members brought into the church; \$20,000,000 given to missionary and charitable objects. The Society responded to the opportunities of the Great War. At Fort Sheridan at one time ten per cent. of the enlisted men were Christian Endeavorers. The United Society early proposed a war program for Christian Endeavor, and an "Army of Universal Patriotic Service" that quickly enlisted thousands in all forms of home co-operation. Wherever Protestant Christianity is known, there the Christian Endeavor Society, born in Maine, is known also.

The great organization that bears the Red Triangle, the Young Men's Christian Association, came early to Maine. The first association was formed at Portland, November 9, 1853. Its purpose was to help young men to secure Christian faith, good companionship, good health, business education and position, indeed to prepare him under the quiet conditions of those far-off days for successful Christian living. Emphasis was laid on the

prayer meeting and the evening class in business. The Association idea grew. Progressive men guided it, conservative men rallied to its support. The story of its work became its best advertisement. The activities "usually pertaining" to the Y. M. C. A. were carried on. A Laymen's Conference was held in Portland in 1909, and a Laymen's Department created, which, calling to its secretaryship Mr. Arthur A. Heald, sought the full exercise of a virile Christianity in all forms of service. Out of that conference grew also the nation-wide Men and Religion Movement. Under the enthusiastic leadership of Jefferson C. Smith, State Secretary, the Maine Y. M. C. A. originated and organized the "Boys' Conferences" which gather the older boys of the State by many thousands into annual conferences, where they are addressed by eminent leaders, greatly to the advantage of the boys in attaining manly Christian character. This movement has spread throughout the United States, and Boys' Conferences are now a part of the religious life of nearly every State. The State Conference for Boys in preparatory schools originated in Maine, and gives a vital service at precisely the right time. Work for woodsmen, and with the Boys Clubs throughout the State increase the practical efficiency of the Association. The Great War found the Y. M. C. A. equipped and ready to do for the soldiers in this land and beyond the seas what had never been done for an army before. Maine went "over the top" in raising money and furnishing Christian leaders. When "winning the war" became a matter of food, and the appeals came from the starving beyond the seas, the Maine Y. M. C. A. planned the "Junior Volunteers." This organization enlisted boys for a definite term for work on farms. Instruction and the control of a director was provided. Governor Milliken appointed Jefferson C. Smith of the Y. M. C. A. as "Director-General of the Junior Volunteers of Maine." In 1918 nearly eighteen hundred boys worked the term of four and one-half months, greatly to their own advantage and to the large increase of food produced in Maine. This plan has been taken up by the U. S. Government, and the director made an officer under the Department of Labor. It is now employed in 37 States, and over 200,000 boys enrolled in 1918. Any sketch of the work of the Y. M. C. A. in Maine should include reference to such veteran workers as Robert A. Jordan of Bangor, and the president for a third of a century of the State Association, Mr. Horace C. Day of Auburn. His faith in the Maine Y. M. C. A. when it was little more than an idea, is justified in its present State, national and world efficiency.

As early as 1863 a vote was passed by the Congregational Conference "favoring an arrangement by which the feeble churches of evangelical denominations should unite in sustaining the ordinances of the Gospel," and trustees were appointed to confer with other bodies. In 1890 Rev. C. S. Cummings, pastor of the Methodist church in Rockland, was "fraternal delegate" to the Congregational Conference at Bridgton. Unable to be present, he wrote a letter suggesting that "plans be made for co-operation when the work is mutual," in order to unify the religious forces of the

small communities which were divided into small and feeble camps. The Conference appointed representatives and invited other denominations to do the same. Out of this grew the Interdenominational Commission of Maine. President Hyde of Bowdoin College was elected its president, and with eminent usefulness continued in office until his death. A State Commission came into being in 1891 and adopted a constitution which has been practically copied by seventeen other States, and has proved the basis of church federation throughout the country. The Commission has brought the several denominational agencies into such co-operation that the old-time friction is well-nigh eliminated. When new towns are settled, as at Millinocket and Rumford Falls, the Commission surveys the field and suggests what denominations should undertake work, thus avoiding the multiplying of feeble churches and the waste of power. On old fields it suggests what denomination should be responsible for carrying forward the religious work. It has secured church federation, while continuing the relation of the members with their own denomination. It has renewed work on neglected fields. By diminishing competition it has made possible a higher type of work in small communities. It is working toward a church that will meet the community needs and so secure the community support. The Interdenominational Commission of Maine was the first organization to deal co-operatively with the problems of home missions and denominational relations within a State. Its secretary for fourteen years, Dr. Anthony, who has largely formulated its principles, becomes the executive head of the Home Missions Council of New York which will carry out the Maine policy on the broader field.

The religious life of Maine showed its patriotism and spirit of sacrifice in the Great War. The churches gave their full support to the Red Cross and every form of service to the soldiers and relief to the needy beyond the seas. The pulpits grew eloquent with the mighty meanings of the World War for justice and human brotherhood. Thus they kept up the morale of the people and became recruiting stations for the best and bravest of American soldiers. The Christian homes blessed and sent forth their sons, sustained by faith in God and in a world delivered. The churches have long swung the nation's flag over their doors, but with the coming of war they bring it in and place it beside the altars where faith receives its consecration. Beside it they hang the "Service Flag," each star standing for a soldier gone to the service of country and God's world. These flags declare the loyalty of the church to country and to God, and they are hanging not merely in the great churches of the cities but in the little wayside meeting houses, where the best and bravest sons of the neighborhoods have heard the call and, in the language of a Maine soldier,—General Chamberlain,—“have answered with the best that is in them.” Death covers some of these stars with gold, but all shine with a radiance that shall not fade till the world grows light.

Chapter XXIX
SOCIAL AND HOME LIFE



OLD KITCHEN SCENE

CHAPTER XXIX

SOCIAL AND HOME LIFE

By LOUISE WHEELER BARTLETT

Indian Instinct of Hospitality.—The social life of Maine, as of the entire New World, began in the hospitality of the Indian tepee. As early as 1604, Champlain, on his voyage of discovery, cruising in his little ship on his quest for Norumbega along the unknown coast of Maine, writes in the quaint style of that day, that the Indian, while desirous of gifts, more than repaid any kindness shown him. "Much welcome, Englishmen, much welcome!" was the first intelligible greeting that the Pilgrim Fathers received at Plymouth, and it was from the lips of Samoset, a Penobscot Indian who had learned to speak a little English from the fishermen trading along the shores of Maine. After his return to "ye eastern parts" (Pemaquid) did he not send to famished Plymouth a supply of provisions with bread material sufficient to keep the Pilgrims from starvation?

After the arrival of Governor Robert Gorges at Casco Bay in 1623, Christopher Levett ascended Fore river to its source, and he writes: "Just at this fall of water, the Sagamore, or king, hath a house, where I was one day. There were two more Sagamores with their wives and children, in all about fifty, we were but seven. They bid me welcome and gave me such victuals as they had, and I gave them tobacco and aqua vitae. The great Sagamore of the East country gave unto me a beaver skin, which I thankfully received, and so in great love we parted." And again he says: "Cogawesco, Sagamore of Casco and Quack, told me, if I would sit down at either of these places I would be very welcome, and he and his wife would go along with me in my boat. The next day the wind came fair and I sailed with the king, queen, prince, bows and arrows, dog and kettle, his noble attendance rowing by us in their canoes. When we came to York, the queen drank to my friends. She drank also to her husband and bid him welcome, as her father had been the Sagamore of this place." This has been called the first royal procession on the waters of Portland harbor; the next was when the Prince of Wales in 1860 came with *his* "noble attendants," rowing by, the only point of similarity to the Indian affair.

When, in 1646, La Tour shot his English foe in the face and left him with his companions to die on the barren rocky shore, it was the red man who took them to his wigwam; the red man, who warmed their frozen limbs, who gave them of warm clothing and the choicest cuts of juicy venison steak, and who later piloted them to a safe port to rejoin their kindred. We know that in the early days of the seventeenth century, before the bloody Indian wars, there was a certain friendship between the first settlers and the red man. An Indian would steal noiselessly to the settle in the ingle-nook; if he were cold, he warmed himself by the blazing hearth; if weary, he slept, wrapped in his blanket; if hungry, he was supplied with food by

the housewife; and would depart as quietly as he came. In return for her hospitality, the Indian brave often brought the young Irish or Scotch foremother a roast of venison or a string of trout; and the squaw came, in her turn, to get food or remedies for the little papoose, and was equally ready to share with the white woman her knowledge of herbs, of dyestuffs, and of preserving foods. The extreme veneration shown by the Maine chief for the aged was noticeable, and the sick were at all times treated with as much tenderness as the rude state of life admitted.

Had it not been for the jealous striving of French, English, and Dutch to wrench from the grasp of one another the uncultivated acres of new country which they had already taken from its rightful owner, the evil characteristics of the Indian might have been counteracted. If a Christlike brotherliness had been brought into the relations of the white man toward the native born, we should have had a different tale to read from that fearful series of massacres, scalplings, and stealing upon the unaware, which has been handed down to our generation.

Early Lack of Social Pleasures.—From Pemaquid eastward to St. Croix, even as late as 1670, there were but a baker's dozen of women in the houses scattered along this great stretch of coast. Of this number possibly eight were the wives of gentlemen owners, and the others, either servants or the wives of servants. Like the fringe on a ragged petticoat, a collection of strange and even picturesque settlements ran along the rough coast of Maine. The trading houses and fishermen's huts were built close to the edge of the sea. York, Casco, Popham, Pemaquid and Castine, with their forts and Jesuit missionaries, were of the greater importance. Life as a whole was bare and spiritless beyond description. The trading houses were not homes, but were occupied from time to time by their owners, and occasionally a wife, like Madame La Tour, would accompany her husband. It was small wonder that young sprigs of nobility, like Baron Castin, seeing the graceful Indian maidens, their luxuriant tresses plaited in long braids, clad in neat deer-skin dresses fringed and ornamented with tasteful embroideries of shell or colored quill, would fall victims to their charms and make them their wives.

With the exception of a few whose names stand out of the commonplace, like "king's masts," in a smaller growth of forest, Maine was builded by the sturdy middle class. The original States had their upper classes and their aristocracy with its gay social life. Soon the big cities and southern plantations had families living in luxury for the times. Not so with the Province of Maine, where the poor Irish, Scotch, English and Welsh had brought from their old homes the customs and habits of their frugal parentage. Their lonely position in the wilderness of this new colony was such that it tended to fix the settlers in these habits, until the common purpose of the Revolution welded them into a new nation to make its own laws and customs.

The lack of railroads, of steamboats, and even of the stage coach made

the only mode of travel on land by horseback or oxcart; on water, by pink, snow, or birch canoe. Houses were placed with their fronts facing the river, the settlers' only highway. All these circumstances forced an isolation that restricted every form of social life to the limits of each little community. The inhabitants of the Province of Maine at that time were characterized by Jocelyn as "indolent and intemperate; having earned a little money they spent it for strong drink, and would not work as hired laborers until it was all spent." He divided them into "magistrates, planters and fishermen. Of the magistrates he further added that some were royalists and some perverse spirits, with a habit of taking tobacco and sleeping at noon, sitting long at meals, which were as frequent as four a day, and now and then drinking a dram."

In the composite of the early male settler of Maine we find no strain of French blood. The French noblemen who came were gentlemen adventurers, here for the love of daring the perils they faced or for the profits of trade, which they carried back in the stout bags filled with precious gold. They had come to these shores with no real intention of settling Maine. They affiliated with the Indian, in a few cases even married into the tribes, and were estimated to have returned to their native country with fortunes as great as three hundred thousand dollars, an enormous sum for those days. The forests of the province were filled with the denizens of the wild, and their valuable pelts were eagerly snatched from the hand of the Indian for a few glass beads, a gun, or some gaudy trinket of barter. At the same time, every river, lake, and stream as well as the great salt deeps, was choked at certain seasons with all kinds of fish, which helped to swell the trader's profits.

Early Holiday Observances.—The first observance of Christmas was not as one might easily suppose, at Plymouth, for Pilgrims and Puritans had small use for those festivities, nor was it at Jamestown, but even earlier, in 1604, on a little island at the mouth of the St. Croix river, some sixteen miles below Calais. A band of gentlemen adventurers and bold vagabonds, headed by De Monts and Champlain, celebrated a Christmas, merry in spite of their fearful isolation. It was characteristic of the lighthearted French. There were solemn services in the chapel by both Protestant and Catholic; then the men went skating and rabbit hunting. Afterwards came the dinner and the reading of the little periodical, "Master Wilhelm," which the bright intellects of the company wrote out to cheer the anxious moments of their companions.

The next Christmas celebrated in the province was that of 1633, when the settlement at Richmond Island abstained from all fishing trips for the two weeks at the Christmas festival season, in strong contrast with the Plymouth manner of passing the holidays. If one can judge from the clothing ordered from England by John Winter, his daughter must have been the island belle at these Christmas festivities. Alas for the fair Sarah, the young Episcopal minister, Richard Gibson, chose for a wife lively little Mary Lewis, who had just arrived on the good ship *Hercules*.

In several of the early histories mention is made of the building of small ships, but the first launching recorded is one at Richmond Island, when all set out in brave attire. John Winter is especially noted in a suit of good kersey of a sad color with a long lapelled waistcoat of brilliant scarlet, his small clothes fastened at the knee with silver buckles over his good Irish stockings, and wearing a steeple-crowned hat. He was followed by Madam Winter and daughter Sarah gay in scarlet petticoats and lace-trimmed coats and waistcoats.

"Gyving God thanks" for safe arrival and many other liberal blessings, was first heard from the lips of Popham colonists at Monhegan in 1607, in the Thanksgiving service of the Church of England.

Dancing.—Dancing has been popular in the State since the first dance recorded in 1675, at Amariscoggin, when Robin Hood, the sachem of Kennebeck, "made a good dance." Conditions must have considerably changed by the lapse of a few years, as in 1635, dances, pernicious singing, lotteries and games in taverns or on streets, were strictly forbidden. Colonel Allen, in his diary of 1777, writes of a conference held at Machias ending with an entertainment for the chiefs and captains at Mr. Mayhew's and for the young men and squaws to the number of thirty at Captain West's, the evening being spent in dancing.

During the Revolution and also the War of 1812, Castine was the scene of considerable social activity. Many British officers were quartered in private houses and made themselves very agreeable. Instances of farewell gifts made by them were numerous. Many a lady who had been inconvenienced by giving up at least half her house, was presented with a blue willow-ware soup tureen filled with choice tea or a large platter of the same china. Life was not all sad colored, for the officers and garrison gave gay parties and started a theatrical troupe, which varied the monotony of existence by dramatic appearances once a fortnight. The barn of the Hooke house was the theater, and the scenery, decorations and costumes were sent down from Halifax. On the Queen's birthday there was a really elaborate celebration.

Besides the dances and theatricals of the officers and the Bench and Bar entertainments, while Castine was shire town, there was the lavish hospitality on record of the owner of the Whitney mansion, which had a fine ball room on its upper floor, and was the scene of some delightful occasions, according to the tales of the old residents.

The early days of Bangor were so intertwined with the story of timber, that there are few personal records of social life. In the period just before and after the Civil War, when Hannibal Hamlin and other distinguished men were coming to the fore, Bangor was noted for its many and bounteous social events. It holds the record for dancing classes and balls famous for graceful dancers and charming hostesses. Mr. Hamlin has expressed something of his sentiments as to dancing in the lines:

"And last, not least, the social dance,
Where we have seen the winning glance
From beauty's eye—bright, sparkling, fair,
Play o'er the forms assembled there—
All—all are scenes so strongly set
In memory, that we'll ne'er forget."

The only "splendid ball" handed down to this generation is described, oddly enough, by little twelve-year-old Mary Merrick, then visiting in Hallowell. She writes her mamma: "We did not go to tea, but left home at a quarter before seven.—There were upwards of a hundred there.—The carpet was taken up and we commenced dancing to a violin and clarionet.—We danced till past nine. when we were marched upstairs, where there was a very splendid supper set out.—After supper we danced again until 11.30." As for the supper, we learn that in the middle of the table were flowers surrounded by a circle of wax candles. Plates were laid for over one hundred guests. On right and left of the flowers were iced plum cakes ornamented with more flowers and two side dishes of "trifle." Whips or custards were at each place. At one end, a ham, at the other a turkey and at either side were large platters of tongue. There were two silver baskets full of cakes, four puddings, ornamented almonds, four dishes of different sweetmeats, with apples, pears, peaches, and raisins to complete the list. The little hostess of this lavish display was Anne Warren, a child of twelve.

Weddings.—On a June morning in 1677 a bridal party lingered before the open door of the log house of Thomas Mills of Wells. In wig and gown, the Rev. Shubael Dummer of York performed the ceremony uniting Martha Mills to James Smith of Berwick. It was the same Martha whom later the Indians carried to Canada for a long weary captivity. Behind her husband on a pillion, the bride rode to the home prepared for her at Berwick—Berwick, where so often the passing traveler brought together the neighbors to hear the news from the westward. He would tell his audience of births, deaths, weddings, the happenings and scandals among the settlers of the adjoining towns—whatever would feed curiosity or excite human interest. Blackberry wine and molasses cake served to add zest to the bits of gossip exchanged. It behooved them to be careful as to the truth of their statements, as in Casco, during the previous decade, a woman was bound over in the sum of twenty-five dollars against tale-bearing from house to house and setting differences between her neighbors. Oh, for some similar law to check the modern tongue of slander!

Again at Wells, some thirty-five years later, in the rude garrison house, the marriage of Elisha Plaisted of Portsmouth to Hannah Wheelwright, a beautiful young girl of eighteen, was solemnized. Some of the first families of Portsmouth came over to the event, and from other settlements guests came by land and water. The nuptials over, there was the usual feast and frolic until midnight. When the guests were about to leave, and looked for their horses, which they had left tied near the shed, there were

no horses to be found. Over two-hundred uninvited guests had been witnesses of the affair, and lying in ambush they fell upon the wedding company, killed a few and carried off the bridegroom, whom they held captive until his wealthy father finally ransomed him for fifteen hundred dollars. This event antedated a custom of the stealing of the bridegroom by his friends and holding him until he promised to pay for a supper for his captors at the tavern.

At a later period, a unique wedding, attended by less tragic circumstances, occurred on the banks of the Androscoggin, when Sybil Staples of Topsham gave her hand and heart to William Walker of Falmouth. An October flood had turned the river into a raging torrent. Neither holy Parson Miller nor irate Jimmy Mustard, the Scotch ferryman, would yield to the entreaties of the superstitious Sybil, who had already twice delayed the marriage. But a woman will have her way, and the knot was tied, as it were, by megaphone, for the couple remained on the Topsham side, while on the Brunswick bank attended by a curious rabble, the Rev. John Miller, by voice and sign, pronounced them man and wife.

If a bride were married in her shift on the king's highway, a creditor could follow her person no farther in pursuit of debt. Such a marriage as this was called a "smock marriage." It generally took place in the dusk of the evening, out of regard for the lady's modesty. We find one recorded in Lincoln county between John Gatchell and Sarah Cloutman, in 1767. Seven years later in York occurs another. Mary Bradley, amid the snows of February, met her lover halfway between her house and his home, in the dark of the moon, clad only in a thin shift. The expressive eyes of the little widow must have been turned on the parson with a human appeal that he was unable to resist, for he pityingly threw his cloak over her shivering form before he began the words of the ceremony. In the following decade the law allowed such marriages to be performed in a closet. Any means to encourage marriage was promoted in those days, and bachelors were regarded almost as in the class of criminals.

The first application for a divorce, strange as it may seem, was from a minister. The tale runs that the Rev. Stephen Bacheller came over from England. In 1650 he was settled at Kittery, where he took, in his own words, "an honest neighbor" for housekeeper, whom he shortly after married. At the age of ninety, weary of his three years of conjugal bliss, he asked for a divorce, but was refused by the court. Shortly after, he deserted his better half to return to England, there to end his days in peace.

Early Maine Worthies.—The isolated names which stood out, as if blazed with a "white arrow" in the social standing of the seventeenth century, were Baron Castin, Sir William Phips and Sir William Pepperell. Baron Castin lived more of the life of the Tarratines and less of the European. We find no records of his entering into social relations. He was abundantly able to entertain guests, but his social life seems more or less in shadow.

Sir William Phips, until he was eighteen, tended his sheep along the rough pastures of the little town of Woolwich. Perhaps the far distant sweep of the broad bay gave him aspirations for great adventures. Like a modern captain of industry, he made good by securing the cargo of a sunken Spanish galleon worth at least three hundred thousand pounds. He was knighted and in April, 1690, given the command of an expedition against Port Royal. Highly successful in his attack, he returned with plenty of silver to use in dispensing hospitality, for, according to Charlevoix, he robbed Meneval of all his money. He also took six silver spoons, six silver forks, a gondola shaped silver cup, Meneval's new wig, his gray vest, his silk garters, two dozen of his shirts, and four lace-edged nightcaps, besides his supply of table linen. Phips, like Julius Caesar, knew how "to distinguish difficulties from impossibilities." He must have inherited his indomitable perseverance from his mother, who did her generous part in the settlement of Maine by bearing unto one husband twenty-six children, twenty-three of them boys. Think of the mittens and socks to knit during the long winter days! How did she get their clothes made without a sewing machine? In winter the family washing was done only once a month, which was a great saving in labor, if not to the modern liking.

William Pepperell wrote a fine hand as a boy of twelve, but was always a little weak as to his spelling. When he grew older he could ride from Kittery Point, his residence, to the Saco river, a distance of thirty miles, on his own land. Yet two of his grandsons were kept from the poor house by the bounty of strangers. When he took to wife pretty Mary Hirst, a hooped petticoat was among the first gifts made by him to his bride. He was made a baronet after the capture of Louisburg, and was Maine's foremost citizen at that period. The city of London presented him with a silver service and also a table of sterling silver (no matter if the table was very narrow and the articles of service very small). Poor Sir William spent the rest of his life keeping up with that silver service. He kept a pleasure boat, which was manned by negro slaves in livery. Tradition tells us that, in scarlet coat, gold laced, he was rowed around the harbor in regal magnificence. Nothing in social annals approaches the grandeur of his funeral, which occurred July 6, 1759. In brief, he lay in state one week. His house was hung in black, and every picture in his daughter's house was swathed in cr pe. A sermon was delivered at the meeting house, where the pews and altar were covered with black, and the procession was the largest ever known in the Province. Two oxen were roasted for the funeral feast, and bread, beer and spirits were given to the common people; while rich wines and choice viands covered the tables for the more distinguished guests. Royalty could have done no more.

That the sumptuousness of Sir William's funeral was in accordance with his ideas of display, if not of his expressed wish, may be inferred from the fact that a few years previous, after his son Andrew's death, he had sent mourning rings of great value not only to friends in the colonies but

even to England. This Andrew was the one whose banns with Hannah Waldo were published in 1748, but whose sickness or caprice delayed the marriage twice or thrice. In 1751, however, Miss Waldo made elaborate preparations for her wedding. The guests arrived at the appointed hour and place, when Hannah enjoyed the sweet revenge of telling Andrew her opinion of him before the whole assembly and refusing to marry him. He had built and elegantly furnished a fine house in Kittery, to which to bring his bride. Hannah did not mourn his loss long, for in six weeks she went to the altar with Thomas Fluker, Esq., Secretary of the Province. It was their daughter Lucy who later married General Knox. Another wedding in Portland was attended by pleasanter circumstances, when in the new Wadsworth house, with its luxurious furnishings, General Peleg Wadsworth gave his sweet daughter Zilpah to the rising young lawyer, Stephen Longfellow, and gave the family home as well, he and his wife retiring to their other house at Hiram.

In Pioneer Days.—While in some phases of the question the French adventurers may have helped in the whole scheme of the settlement of Maine, their part in it was indeed infinitesimal in comparison with the sturdy pioneer. He came with the word Home burnt on his heart and burnt on his brain. The man who came to wrest from the vast wilderness his food, his shelter, his garments and his higher life, hewed and delved not for himself alone, but for his strong, fearless helpmeet in the business of marriage, and also for his fast-growing young brood, which clustered like weeds about the open door of the rough cabin of logs. Even the mites of humanity were taught to bear their honest share in the division of the labor of home building. Man erected his simple shack of logs, and woman, as is her way, immediately set to work to make its rough walls home. "Habits of industry and frugality are the only substantial foundations to which national prosperity can be confided."

After Massachusetts acquired the District, a slow but steady tide of immigration set in. The settlers were influenced to come by the cheapness of the land, the richness of soil, the abundance of valuable timber, and the vast extent of the fisheries, which gave such a bountiful yield. As race suicide was not then in vogue, the families were much larger than those of the present day, and it was necessary to keep a big supply of food cooked. So thirty and forty pies were often baked at one time. Co-operation is not a new term, and our great-grandmothers used to co-operate and conserve fully as much as we do. Bake shops supplied them with bread and sometimes baked their beans for them. When we think of the amount of work those women were able to accomplish, we wonder when they took time for pleasure. To salt the pork and the fish, pickle great haunches of meat, dry the apples for winter, can the vegetables, preserve the small fruits, make the jellies and the soap, dip the candles, weave the woollen and linen cloth, knit stockings, mittens and hoods, yet never miss a meeting of the Dorcas Society, was a herculean feat.

In Colonial Times.—In passing, it is not amiss to speak of the charm of colonial houses. While our grandmothers were without many of the comforts called necessities in these days, such as porcelain bathtubs, speaking tubes and victrolas, the finer things of life were enjoyed by them. They had an elegant simplicity which the twentieth century woman lacks. The dignity and reserve and welcome of their homes was greater than now. Spaciousness was the keynote of every room, and the furniture was so well made and so exquisitely carved, that it is the despair of the modern cabinet maker. It was made before the time of the American rush and hurry. The East India Company had opened up the Orient. With the flood of teas and coffees, gingers and condiments, had also come the beautiful porcelains, rugs and bronzes of India and China. The blood red of the vases and the blue and white wares toned magnificently with the rich mahogany furniture.

Maine built more than her share of brigs, barks and ships. She also produced captains and crews of unequalled seamanship; hence every little hamlet of the coast sent its quota of men down to the sea in ships to bring back wealth and artistic comforts. Every captain's wife could seat her guests in Canton chairs, could wear Japanese embroideries, and could boast with pleasure of her shelves loaded with eggshell teacups. It was Charles Lamb who, when visiting, inquired first for the china closet and then for the picture gallery of his host. It is from our colonial ancestors that we inherit the built-in china cupboards with their diamond-paned glass fronts.

The first mention of lemons was in an advertisement of the *Castine Eagle* in the year 1811, but surely they were used in Maine before that date, if we judge from the amount of punch and rum consumed at all social affairs. We notice mention of tea as early as 1739. An Alexander was chosen commander of a brigade. He arranged for a frolic in honor of the occasion. He procured at the fort one gallon of rum and a pound of tea, which was very expensive. Telling his wife to prepare the tea for her women friends, he served out rum to the men. On entering the house in a moment of leisure between drinks, he found that his wife had served up the tea leaves buttered like greens. Making known to her her mistake he asked for the *broth*, and found she had given it to the pig, and even the pig would not drink it.

The following year, during the great scarcity, when all provisions had failed except potatoes and alewives, a Boston merchant asked a native of Wiscasset how they lived. He received the reply, "We have roast and boiled every day." The merchant replied, "That is better fare than we have in Boston," not realizing that the Maine man meant boiled potatoes and roast alewives for every meal. For several years leather was so scarce that the pioneers of the District used every means to conserve it. A Mrs. Miller, a godly woman of Warren, scrupulously neat and a regular church attendant, always went to services barefoot to save her precious shoes. Arrived at church, she put on her shoes, unlike the Moslem, before entering; but, strange to say, removed her bonnet. Mrs. Knight of Lincolnville

was the proud possessor of a pair of silver shoe buckles the gift of a friend, worth fifty-four dollars. Such was the necessity of the times that she reluctantly sold them to feed her starving family. Her husband brought home on his back three pecks of corn meal, a shirt which cost six dollars, stockings for the same price, and a pair of shoes costing seven dollars, bought with the proceeds of the buckles.

A Colonial Lover.—In reading history, it is the little points of tender human interest which appeal to the majority; what she wore on her wedding day; the happiness that came into her life; how she bore her tragedies; how many children blessed her life. It is the few, who note the number of rounds of ammunition in yesterday's battle; it is only the thinkers who reason why the economic policy was thus and so. A story of delightful charm is that of Mary Deering and the famous Commodore Preble. A month before he sailed for France in 1799, he was superintending the rigging of his ship, the *Essex*, at Salem. He writes to Madam Deering a quite heartrending letter of his love for her fair daughter. It ends with this touching appeal: "If I possessed a world, I would give it freely for one hour with your amiable family before I go, but that, alas, is impossible. Should Mary Deering bless another with her affections, and not me, I am lost forever—for heaven's sake plead for me!" The young naval officer was evidently not as daring in love as brave in battle. Our suspense, however, is relieved, for on his return he married the lady of his dreams, and years after died a commodore, with a most elaborate funeral, escorted by the longest procession *without* a single carriage ever seen in Portland.

Frolics.—During the good old colonial days any sprightly social gathering or a jollification ending with a mug of hot flip, was called a "frolic." On a cold afternoon, February 4, 1763, Brigadier Preble, Colonel Waldo, Captain Ross, Doctor Coffin, Nathaniel Moody and their wives, and Tate, whoever he may have been, set out "on a frolic" to Ring's Tavern, Black Point, Scarboro. They went down from their home in Falmouth in sleighs, and immediately upon their arrival at the famous inn the "frolickers" sent out invitations to all the Black Point gentry to join them. The house was filled to overflowing. A great snow storm, five feet on a level, fell during the night and enforced their stay for ten days. The noise of the elements was unable to compete with the merriment of the party. "Mine host alone was in trouble, as it was near a famine for bread" throughout that entire section. Every particle of food was consumed, and men on snowshoes were sent to Portland for fresh supplies. It was with vast difficulty and expense that Brigadier Preble and his companions reached home at the end of the ten days. As the local historian puts it, it was a revel that Falstaff would have envied.

In the frolic class were listed raisings, huskings, spinning and quilting bees, wood choppings, and apple parings. In 1788 Ephraim Ballard of Augusta had a new salt mill raised, an event which called together a vast

concourse of men and children, and "not many were disguised with liquor," so the young folks ended the day with a dance. Barn or house raisings were occasions for much merriment and the drinking of much rum, when generally a big supper was served by the owner. A raising meant placing in position of the already fitted timbers of the frame of a building. A feat requiring much courage was to walk the newly erected ridgepole, and carry a glass of grog and drink it without spilling a drop while in this elevated position. In 1791 James Miller's house was raised in Belfast. After the frame was in place, the master workman dashed a bottle of rum over it, while two adventurous workers bestrode the ridgepole at either end. One of them said,

"Here is a fine frame
Without any name,
And what shall we call it?"

Then the frame was given the name with three cheers from the crowd. The first barn raised without liquor was erected in Bath in 1842. The event was talked of for days, after the owner announced his decision not to provide a single drop of rum. "He can't raise it without rum" was the universal opinion of the old citizens, and crowds gathered to view the attempt. Old toppers felt it was life or death to tradition. With hands in pockets at least a hundred men stood about and wouldn't "lift." Some boys and a few women helped, amid the jeers of the village sots, but the barn was raised and is still standing.

Admiral Bartholomew James, of the Royal Navy, took part in a husking at Vassalborough during a trip up the Kennebec. He said it was a sort of English harvest home and supper, with the addition of the amusement of kissing the girls whenever they met with a red ear, dancing, singing, and drinking. A rule in the *Farmers' Almanac* for a husking bee was to keep an old man between every two boys, "else your husking will turn out a losing. In a husking there is some fun and frolic; on the whole, it hardly pays its way, for they do not husk clean, since many go more for the sport than for work." A story is told of Grandfather Nahum Ham, who was drawn as a juror at Wiscasset and left his planting to his son. On his return he found, to his amazement, that the boys had planted his entire great farm to corn. As he had been gone about four months, he got back just in season for a mammoth husking, with all the pretty girls for miles around invited, the opportunity for the husking having been the reason for the planting of so much corn.

A well known barbecue was that given to Benedict Arnold's army, when it lay three days at Fort Western, in September, 1775. The general made his headquarters with an exceedingly hospitable and opulent family by the name of Howard. The citizens of the neighborhood were ardent Whigs, and rejoiced to do what they could for these men about to brave the terrors of the trail to Quebec. With the help of the women living near, the forced delay was enlivened by festivities. Young Aaron Burr, afterwards

Vice-President, who was of the regiment, and a fascinating young Indian princess, Jacataqua, who for love of Burr was acting as a guide, shot three immense bears, which were roasted whole. Kindly neighbors contributed green corn, potatoes, melons and quintals of smoked salmon as well as pumpkin pies from their kitchens. There was an abundance of venison, beef, pork and bread at the fort. Many guests were invited to the dinner with their wives. Doctor Senter and Doctor Dearborn carved at either end of the long table. Toasts and music concluded the feast.

Neighborliness.—In the pioneer days the name "neighbor" meant something. A great many of the little hamlets were settled by families from the same town in the old country. A brotherly feeling prevailed so they took their work and their pleasures in company. A moose or a bear slain by one was for the use of the entire community. No matter how great was the magnitude of the work, as many as were needed turned out to help. On a rare May day there assembled in the home of the Rev. Samuel Deane of Portland in the year 1788 more than one hundred of the fair sex, taking with them about sixty spinning wheels. At the end of the day they presented to Mrs. Deane some two hundred and thirty-seven knotted skeins of excellent cotton and linen yarn. After the supper a numerous company of the city's best singers arrived for a sing.

The crowning joy of both bees and quiltings was the supper. It gave an occasion to bring out not only the best china, linen and silver which the hostess owned, but there was the delightful opportunity to spring new receipts. Even a modest cup of "liberty tea" seemed to loosen the speech and add to the general merriment. In passing we give a sample supper: salmon or venison, according to season, hot biscuit, peach preserve, apple and quince sauce, doughnuts, mince pies, custards, fruit cake and sage cheese.

The sugar making season was hailed with delight by the boys of colonial days. It had a touch of gipsy life to it. If the maple sugar camp was near enough to farm houses to allow of visitors, a frolic would be made of the trip. Sledloads of young girls would go out to sample the new sugar. They would test its quality by dropping it from the long-handled ladle onto a bit of clean snow to cool into candy. If it was the last day of sugar making there was the pleasure of the ride home with the boys for partners.

An apple paring was another annual event in each household. The cheerful kitchen was a busy scene. Bright eyes and smiling faces, whose owners touched hands over the heaped-up apple barrels, formed a circle around the room. Skillful hands and sharp knives soon filled the empty pans and tubs. The apples were quartered and strung on linen threads, and then hung on rafters to dry. The parings were used to make jelly and apple butter.

Women reveled in patchwork quilts. The designs were intricate and numerous. "Log cabin" and "Job's trouble" were the favorite designs, but

"love-knot" and "bluebells" were two of the sentimental varieties. When all the little squares had been sewed at home in the lonely hours, the maker would invite her neighbors in to help her "set up" the quilt. The frame would be fastened to the backs of chairs of a convenient height, while around the outstretched quilt a dozen women would sit, running the whole together with fanciful design of stitching. It was a united and really sociable work that required no specially close attention. The workers were all facing one another, which afforded a charming opportunity for sweet chatter and intimate, harmless gossip. If a young girl were about to be married, several quilts were set up at the same time. A tradition of Saco valley relates that a certain quilt owned there has a vivid bit of color in it which was once the magnificent scarlet cloak of a lord mayor of London.

To the list of bees we can add glove-bees, where the girls met and cut out and made gloves. Sometimes they were of kid, but more often of nankeen, and were tied to the short sleeves and often matched the nankeen pantalets. If the quilting-bee was a peculiarly feminine event, it was the chopping-bee which called together the men and boys of the neighborhood. Many a poor widow or unfortunate father of a family had a winter's supply of fuel provided in a short space of time under conditions of good fellowship and neighborly kindness.

Church and Tavern.—Distinctions of wealth or education were little noticed in the years just before the Revolution. Early settlers were restricted to the use of the kitchen and the meeting-house for their few pleasures. So prayer meetings were as enthusiastically attended by sinners who were "courtin'" as by saints. If there was no tavern near the church, often a fire-room was provided for the noon hour, where the woman and children had their lunches in comfort. The blazing logs were for the women what the ingle nook of the tavern was for the men. In the genial nooning hour, while the frozen congregation was thawing out, bits of gossip drifted to the ear. "Mother says it was a fine funeral, but she has tasted better funeral meat." "Really, my dear, she was actually married on the King's highway, and that too, in her shift." In these days girls are protected from white slave perils, but then colonial magistrates considered that young men must be protected from designing young females.

No wonder all the men of the town flocked to the tavern. They had to, to know anything of town or social affairs, to say nothing of local scandals. The absence of magazines and the greater scarcity of newspapers to disseminate current events made it necessary to impart this information by word of mouth. This gave to the innkeeper and his wife an almost false social standing, as they received the news from the frequent traveler at first hand. The minister, the lawyer, and the doctor, yes, and the teacher held a higher position in public opinion than they do today, as the masses were not then educated to any extent. The minister went to all kinds of public and private functions. A few of them had the discretion of the Rev. Mr. Sewall who always retired before "the scene assumed much of the dangers incident to excess."

The title of "Goody" seemed to be applied to elderly women. Goody Booth had her social standing settled by her seat in church, where in 1666 she was given the most honorable seat by unanimous vote of the freemen of Saco; while Goody Mendum, the mother of sweet Dorothy, was fined five pounds for saying, "The devil take Mr. Gullison and his wife!" for keeping a rival "ordinary." We may conjecture that Mrs. Mendum's seat was far back in the church.

If to be happy at home is the ultimate end of all ambition, according to an old-world philosopher, colonial dames attained that end, for they were a fair type of the olden time, simple, sincere, industrious, cheerful, contented and truthful. The deprivations of the Revolution compelled sacrifice not only of comforts but of the necessities of life. Multitudes who had lived in comparative affluence were destitute of daily bread. Many flocked from twenty miles away to clam flats to obtain food for their families. The able-bodied men were in the army, and their absence bore heavily on the women at home, yet women were the power behind the patriot cause, as they are in the world war of today.

Visits.—Visits were made at all hours of the day; if in the morning, the visit usually extended until after dinner. Visitors from a distant part of the town tarried over night. They frequently visited in groups. Mr. and Mrs. Ballard, the famous midwife of the Kennebec, would get Mr. and Mrs. Bullen and go to the west side of the river to dine with friends. Their number augmented by their hosts, they would continue to Dr. Cony's or Colonel North's to supper (to all appearances uninvited), and arrive home at midnight. There was no whining complaint of the impossibility of enjoying life in a country environment, now so common. There was no city life to set absurd standards. Mothers and daughters liked work, for the pleasure of accomplished result. Young girls were extremely busy knitting, spinning, weaving, cooking, teaching the younger children, working among their flowers, embroidering samplers, making their clothes, getting linen and quilts ready for their "hope chests," reading good books, as well as riding horseback and visiting often with young companions. It was a sweet and serene state of happiness, where comfort and simplicity reigned.

Vanities of Dress.—Just a few words might appropriately be said about the fashions of this period. Belles attached long trains to their gowns of rich brocade; the skirts, opening in front, were trimmed, and sometimes had an embroidered stomacher. In walking they threw their trains over their arms, displaying dainty silk stockings and sharp-toed high-heeled slippers of brocade. In *Margaret* we read that boys wore tongs (trousers) and checked shirts, and sometimes a sort of brown trousers, known as skilts. Even Lafayette wore nankeen trousers, which were permitted for full dress. General Peleg Wadsworth is thus described by his young daughter Zilpah: "Imagine to yourself a man of middle age, well proportioned, with a military air, and who carries himself so truly that many thought him tall. His dress a light scarlet coat, buff small clothes and vest, full ruffles over the

what today is an educational platitude, that the supreme agent in the make-up of a good school is the teacher; that without an efficient teacher, money spent for equipment is wasted and the best planned courses come to naught. To secure such teachers was for many years the problem. It took time for people then, as it does today, to discern the truth that, although much depends upon temperament and personality, teaching is both an art and a science, that there is much about teaching that can be taught.

In 1860 the Maine Legislature had voted to abolish the county institutes and establish at each of eighteen selected academies a normal department. Each academy was to provide suitable recitation rooms and teachers for at least fifty pupils for two terms, preference in the spring term being given to women and in the autumn to men, the trustees of the academy examining the candidates for admission, and the State Superintendent planning and supervising the course. For its services the academy was to receive \$100 the first year and \$200 the second year. Four hundred fifty-seven took advantage of this course in the spring of 1861, and four hundred thirty-eight in the autumn. Of these students, five hundred fifteen had previously taught. This was an interesting educational experiment, but it did not bring the good results anticipated, and the law was repealed in 1862. In March, 1863, however, a bill was passed for the establishment of two normal schools, one in the eastern part of the State and one in the western.

The Western School was established at Farmington during that year, "the trustees of Farmington Academy having transferred to the State in money, buildings, and lot, property of the estimated value of \$12,000." A new building was erected, and on August 24, 1864, the school opened. During the first term, fifty-nine from thirteen of the sixteen counties of the State attended the school. Ever since then it has prospered. It has had as principals: Ambrose P. Kelsey, 1864-65; George W. Gage, 1865-68; Charles C. Rounds, 1868-83; George C. Purington, 1883-06; and Wilbert G. Mallett, 1906-. It has today an equipment valued at \$160,500, and an attendance of 235. During its fifty-five years of existence 2,270 have taken here the full course.

The Eastern Normal School, located at Castine, was opened September 7, 1867. During the first term only twelve students were in attendance, but at the close of the fourth year, 140. Today it has 128 pupils and an equipment worth \$118,000. During its fifty-one years of existence 1,550 have been graduated from the school. Its principals have been: G. F. Fletcher, 1867-79; Roliston Woodbury, 1879-88; and Albert F. Richardson, from 1888 to the present time.

When we consider that these schools have given to prospective teachers of the State an opportunity to review their common school studies thoroughly, to use modern pedagogical apparatus, to get acquainted with the best text-books, to learn the best methods of teaching by practice in model schools under the supervision of instructors especially skilled in their profession, we can see that the establishment of these schools meant much to the

cause of education in Maine, and that 1863 marks a milestone in Maine's educational career.

It was doubtless because of the good work done at these institutions, because the people saw that such schools are worth while, that the State opened the Madawaska Training School at Fort Kent in 1878; the Normal School at Gorham in 1879; the Aroostook Normal School at Presque Isle in 1903; and the Washington Normal School at Machias in 1910.

In 1864 Mr. Weston resigned his office, and in May, 1865, Rev. Edward Ballard of Brunswick was appointed in his place and was Superintendent for the next three years. A law enacted in 1868 defined more accurately the duties of the Superintendent, increased his salary to \$1,800, and travelling and other necessary expenses not to exceed \$500, and located his office in the State House at Augusta. Here "he must preserve all school reports of the State and other States which may be sent to his office, the returns of the superintending school committees of the various towns, and such books, apparatus, maps, charts, works on education, plans for school buildings, models, and other articles of interest to school officers and teachers as may be procured without expense to the State."

From 1868 to 1876 the schools of the State were under the supervision of Mr. Warren Johnson of Topsham, a wide-awake, far-seeing educator. During his term of office he sought with courage and resourcefulness to remedy some of the long-standing defects in the school system—inadequate inspection, incompetent teachers, poor wages, and short schools. To his advice and influence was due largely the enactment of such laws as stopped payment by the State of all school moneys to any town which had not made returns according to law; as imposed a penalty upon school officials for changing text-books more often than once in five years; as gave more powers to cities to take lands for school houses; as re-established teachers' institutes, which in a spirit of false economy had been abolished in 1863. But the greatest piece of legislation of all, was that which provided for the county supervision of schools. By this law each county was to have a supervisor whose term of office was to be three years, and whose duties were to visit schools, inspect them carefully, note and record the defects not only in the teaching but in school houses and out-buildings, give directions in the art of teaching, and act as official advisor and constant assistant to the school officers and teachers in his county. The State Superintendent and the county supervisors were to constitute a State Board of Education, of which the State Superintendent was to be *ex officio* secretary.

All available testimony agrees that this system of county supervision was a step in advance. It gave more careful school inspection than ever before, helped to arouse a new interest in the schools, to eliminate inefficient teachers, to increase attendance, and to lengthen the school year. Indeed, there were those who said it worked too well. It revealed too many shortcomings to satisfy some of the local school officials, and too many relatives of members of school boards had to step down from the teacher's desk which

they had failed to enoble if not to adorn. At any rate, by one of those mistakes in judgment which, with all its virtues, seem to be inherent in a democracy, the Legislature of 1873 "scrapped" the county supervision system and allowed the schools to return to many of their old inefficient methods. This same Legislature, however, redeemed in part its reputation by passing a Free High School law that was destined to have a marked effect upon the schools of the State, and especially the secondary schools.

As early as 1636 there had been established in Boston a school in which Greek and Latin classics were taught, later called the Grammar, or the Latin Grammar School. A similar school was opened in Newtowne, now Cambridge, in 1636; in Salem in 1637; and in Newbury in 1639. These were in substance like the English Grammar School or our mid-nineteenth century high school—fitting schools from which students as they were "judged ripe" might be received into the college. When Maine became a State, there were within her borders seven of these schools. Besides these, as I have said, academies were established, and for fifty years these academies played an invaluable part in Maine's educational history. But as the high schools increased in number and efficiency, the attendance at many of the academies decreased; and since the most of them were without large endowments, by 1873 many of them were living at a dying rate. "Of the seventy-one academies and similar institutions of learning chartered by the State before 1871 only thirty-seven made returns that year, and twenty-seven of these were reported as without sufficient revenue." This meant considerable assistance by the State—in 1871, \$18,500.

It was felt that the Commonwealth could reach a larger number of boys and girls if the system of State aid were put on a broader basis. A law was passed in 1873 giving authority to any town to establish a free high school, and the State would pay one-half the cost of instruction, meaning by this only board and wages of teachers, providing that the sum paid by the State should not exceed \$500, and that the towns should make special appropriation for the purpose, exclusive of the amount required by law for common school purposes. And instead of charging for tuition as did the academies, these schools were to be free.

The very first year after the passage of this law one hundred and fifty of these schools were opened, and were attended by 10,286 pupils. The whole amount spent in maintaining the schools was \$83,524, and the amount disbursed by the State \$29,133. Hardly any other law has done so much as this Free High School law for the advancement of the cause of education and the dissemination of learning throughout the State. The free high school is the poor man's college. "It has opened to large numbers of our youth," wrote Superintendent Luce, "the sources of culture; influenced for good the common schools; given better teachers to the common schools; and inspired the pupils with new incentive to work in the desire to qualify themselves for admission to the high schools." Of course, such a law could not be passed without opposition, and this opposition took form by causing

the suspension of the law for one year in 1878. But today anyone who proposed a repeal of the law would be considered to have lost his reason. In the ten years between 1881 and 1891 the number of high schools increased from 100 to 228, and the total attendance from 7,792 to 15,739. Certainly 1873 is another year to be remembered in Maine's educational history.

In 1876 Mr. W. J. Corthell of Calais became State Superintendent of Schools. He was Superintendent for one year only, but his report is one of the most interesting and suggestive among the school reports of the State. At the end of the year Mr. Corthell resigned to become principal of the normal school at Gorham.

On December 31, 1878, Mr. Nelson A. Luce of Vassalboro was appointed State Superintendent. Hardly had he taken office when an administration of a different political stripe came into power, and for purely partisan reasons, in May, 1879, Mr. Edward Morris of Biddeford was put in his place. In February, 1880, however, Mr. Luce was again appointed, and held this important office until December 31, 1894. Mr. Luce proved to be a quiet, tactful Superintendent, a cogent reasoner and clear writer. During his administration many interesting school laws were enacted. In 1881 women were made eligible to membership on school boards and to the office of supervisor of schools. In 1883 the length of the school week was changed from five and one half to five days. In 1885 teachers in all schools were compelled to give instruction in physiology and hygiene, with special reference to the effects of alcoholic drink. In 1887 laws were enacted more strictly compelling the attendance of children at school between the ages of eight and fifteen at least sixteen weeks in the year, and providing that "no child under fifteen years of age should be employed in any factory except during vacations, unless he had attended school sixteen weeks the previous year." In 1889 all towns were compelled by law to buy text-books for the pupils in their schools. In 1891 a law was enacted that all public school teachers should devote not less than ten minutes of each week to teaching the principles of kindness to birds and other animals. In 1894 the old district system was abolished. This was the most important work that Mr. Luce accomplished. Against the wasteful, inefficient district system for years he argued long and hard.

Early New Englanders were suspicious of centralized power in the government of either Church or State. Every man wanted a chance to have his say. The school district was an example of extreme local self-government. So small was it that the voice of the poorest and most ignorant, to say nothing of the gossipy and ill-intentioned, could be loudly heard and sometimes, it seemed, exerted too powerful an influence in the location of the school-house or the choice or dismissal of the teacher. At any rate, in the cities the need was soon felt for a more simple and unified organization. Thus it was that even as early as 1822 a discussion arose concerning the powers and the advantages of the school district—a discussion which was not to be finally settled for more than seventy years.

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STEPHEN LONGFELLOW

On January 1, 1895, Mr. W. W. Stetson of Auburn became State Superintendent of Schools. During his first year he carefully inspected two hundred rural schools in eight different counties, both in new and sparsely settled and in older and more thickly populated portions of the State. Some of the facts he thus discovered are interesting and significant. Of the two hundred schools visited, Mr. Stetson was forced to grade 41% of them as "poor" or "very poor." Many of the school rooms were decorated with "glaring advertisements of some favorite brand of tobacco." The average age of the teachers was between twenty-four and twenty-five. Fifty-two per cent. had acquired all their education in the common schools; thirty-eight per cent. had attended an academy or high school one year; but only ten per cent. were graduates of either a normal or a high school. Many of the teachers he found incredibly ignorant, and without any skill at all in applying pedagogical methods. "Often during recitation periods," he writes, "there was a stream of pupils from desks to teacher and from the teacher to the desks, asking foolish questions, questions which the pupils themselves could answer with a little study." The work in arithmetic in 43% of the schools inspected was a senseless committing of rules. In the reading classes he found too often an unintelligent repetition of words with such mispronunciations as "Edinburg" for "Edinboro," "asslum for "asylum," "im-pi'-ous" for "im'-pi-ous," "ep-i-tome" for "e-pit'-o-me" and "stip-u-les" for "stipules."

Discouraging as some of these facts were, the Superintendent did not stop here. The next year he sent out a list of searching questions concerning town superintendents and their work. While the answers brought back some heartening information, they also revealed the facts that 16% of the superintendents had received all their education in the common schools, and that 4% had never attended any school, either public or private; 35% had never taught; 68% reported that they had never read a book on the science or art of teaching; and 14% had read only one such book. Seventy-one per cent. of the teachers were legal residents of the towns in which they were teaching, and, what was more significant, 12% of all the teachers were relatives of members of the superintending school committees, and an additional 5% were so related by marriage or associated in business with these officials as to give these teachers an unsafe influence in securing their appointments. Thirty-five per cent. of all teachers had not even tried the examinations required by State law, and 38% of the teachers had never read any book on the science or art of education. It was this revelation of ignorance, incompetence, evasion of law, favoritism and nepotism, which led President Hyde of Bowdoin College to say at a meeting of the Maine Pedagogical Society at Lewiston on December 31, 1896: "In the literal sense of the old Greek word, the present is a crisis, a judgment, a parting of the ways, for our common schools of Maine. The State Superintendent has done an audacious thing. He has had the courage to tell the plain and awful truth about these schools of ours."

To correct these abuses, Mr. Stetson went to work with vigor and resourcefulness. Largely through his influence and advice a law was passed in 1895 providing for the State certification of teachers. Modeled after a similar Massachusetts law, it provided that State certificates might be granted for a term of years or for life; that a list of all persons receiving State certificates should be kept at the office of the State Superintendent; that copies of these should be sent to any school officer on application, and that these certificates should authorize the persons holding them to teach in the public schools of the State without examination by school committees or superintendents. Any person who had taught successfully for six terms of not less than ten weeks each might be a candidate for a State certificate. This was the beginning of State examination of teachers, and by giving an added dignity to the profession, making the tenure of office more secure, and on the whole leading to promotion, was a decided gain.

The same Legislature provided for summer schools for teachers. In these schools held at first at six different places, some of the very best teachers from the schools and colleges of the State were employed. Excellent instruction was given not only concerning modern pedagogical methods, but also in the subject matter of the branches taught in the schools—in literature, history, and science, in music and drawing, voice culture and manual training. In 1895 seven hundred and ninety-eight teachers attended these schools, one of which was held at the State University at Orono; and no doubt these teachers went back to their work in the fall with renewed interest, more skill and knowledge, and with an increased desire to excel.

In his tour of inspection the Superintendent had discovered that one great need was a carefully planned course of study. He saw that boys and girls in the rural schools were repeating their work term after term, that a child who ought to be in the second reader was blundering along in the fifth, and that often a major part of the time and attention of a pupil was spent on only one study. To the task of remedying this he now addressed himself, and in 1895 sent a carefully prepared and suggestive outline of a course of study to every teacher and superintendent in the State.

A step which Mr. Stetson considered perhaps the most important of his administration, was the formation of the School Improvement Leagues of Maine. He believed that the rural schools were unsuccessful partly because the community lacked pride; that too often parents took no interest in the schools and in consequence the children did little to co-operate with teachers or with each other even in maintaining mediocre standards—much less in improving them. To remedy this condition, Improvement Leagues were formed. Their expressed purpose was to enlist the intelligent support and the cordial co-operation of the parents in providing better surroundings, books for the children, teachers, and citizens, and in supplying works of art for the school rooms. The organization was simple. Local leagues were formed in the different schools. Town leagues were made up of the officers of the local leagues. And lastly there was a State league made up of

delegates from the town leagues and of members of local leagues holding diplomas. The regular membership consisted of pupils, teachers, school officials, and other citizens who paid the assessed dues—not less than one cent a month for each pupil, and for every other member not less than ten cents a term. The plan, of course, was largely dependent upon some enthusiastic person to make it go. That person was Mr. Stetson, and through his efforts it proved a successful means of arousing dormant interest in the rural neighborhoods and in making the pupils and parents realize that the schools were theirs—not an institution thrust upon them from without—and that the obligation rested upon them to repair their school fences, beautify the school grounds, provide suitable physical surroundings for their children, and, indeed, bear their part as decent citizens. The Improvement Leagues did much to bind together school and community.

But valuable as the league plan proved to be, and rated highly as it was by Mr. Stetson, a still more important step taken by him was his strong advocacy of expert supervision. He early saw that no large business concern expending millions of dollars annually would for a moment tolerate the blundering and inefficient and unskilled superintendence which was at the heart of much that was wrong and wasteful in our schools. In 1896 he urged strongly in his report the system of expert superintendence for districts made up by the union of three or four towns—a system that had been tried in other States, and which is in successful operation in our State today—a system which has probably done more than any other one thing to better the schools of Maine.

Mr. Stetson's administration closed, to say the least, unfortunately. Party rancor became bitter. But even his political enemies had to acknowledge that he had with courage, resourcefulness and indefatigable industry inaugurated and advanced many important school reforms in the State.

In January, 1907, Mr. Payson Smith of Auburn became State Superintendent. From the first he was eminently successful. Being well acquainted with Mr. Stetson's plans and policies, the reforms which his predecessor had initiated Mr. Smith was able to push to a successful issue. He believed thoroughly in summer schools for teachers, in the school improvement leagues, in State certification of teachers, and especially in expert district supervision. None of these movements were, therefore, retarded because of the change of administration. But he did more than carry forward the policies of another. Any one who watched Mr. Smith's work at all closely, could not fail to see that he had a carefully thought-out theory of education. His forward steps were not uncertain. One felt that he saw clearly for at least five years ahead some of the big things he would have the schools of the State accomplish, and that he was pushing these forward just as fast and as hard as public opinion and support would allow. And in moulding that opinion and winning that support he was especially skillful. Not only did he know how to manage the politicians who made the appropriations at Augusta, but he was able to win whole communities at once to

his way of thinking. He could tell the assembled citizens of a town very frankly some ugly truths about the conditions of their schools, and do it with such evident sincerity that instead of arousing their hostility he would win their support.

One of the prime tenets of Mr. Smith's creed was: "The common schools are for the common people." And many of the things that he did seemed to spring from this belief. It was probably for this reason that he was such an unswerving advocate of vocational or industrial training. In 1910 his annual report gave a large part of its space to the findings of a committee, of which he was chairman, appointed to investigate the condition and results of industrial education in other States and other countries. In 1911, in accordance with a recommendation of this committee, the Legislature enacted a law for the encouragement of industrial education in the public schools of Maine. This law provided that whenever the superintendent of schools of any town should certify under oath to the State Superintendent that instruction in manual training or domestic science had been provided pupils of elementary schools for the year preceding, then, upon the approval of such certificate by the State Superintendent, State aid should be paid to the amount of two-thirds the total salary paid each teacher, provided that the amount paid by the State for the employment of any one instructor should not exceed \$800 in one year; and provided further that the course of study, equipment, and qualifications of instructors should have been approved by the State Superintendent of Schools. Equally generous provision was also made for State aid to high schools and academies giving instruction in agriculture and the domestic and mechanic arts. This law Mr. Smith rated as among the most important of his administration. And it was partly because of this law and partly no doubt because of his advocacy and interest, that courses in type-writing and stenography, sewing and cooking, carpentry and agriculture, were introduced into many schools, with the result—whatever the opponents of the movement may say—of greatly increasing the attendance, especially in city high schools. Thus, according to Mr. Smith, the schools were better serving the common people.

In harmony with this same belief was his reorganization of the secondary schools. For some years, so far as the State was concerned, they had apparently been let pretty well alone. But they were becoming, Mr. Smith believed, simply fitting schools for colleges, spending most of their time and money upon a favored few rather than the unfavored many. In consequence, in 1909-10 he overhauled them, classified them as A, B or C schools, saw that increased State aid was provided them, urged strongly for them a broader curriculum, employed a special inspector, Mr. Josiah W. Taylor, who has since faithfully devoted to them his entire time, visiting recitations, arranging courses of study, trying in every way possible to assist the teachers and to make these schools more efficient servants of all the people.

Mr. Smith was always interested in the question of compensation for his teachers. The very first sentence of his first annual report reads: "No

more serious educational problem confronts the people of Maine than that of the teacher's salary." And not one of the nine reports that follow fails to speak of the absolute necessity of Maine teachers' receiving better remuneration. Each year some progress was made in this direction; the most in 1913, when the teachers' pension law was enacted. By this, teachers who are sixty years old and have taught thirty-five years, twenty years of that time in Maine, receive annually upon retirement \$250; those who have taught thirty years, \$200; and twenty-five years, \$150—a short step, perhaps, but certainly a forward one.

During the eight years that Mr. Smith was superintendent, many other advances were made in the school system. In 1909 a law was enacted providing for the appointment of a school physician in each town of less than forty thousand inhabitants, his appointment to be made by the school committee when so directed by the town. The prime duties of this physician were the prompt examination of all school children referred to him, and of the teachers and janitors, and also of the school buildings, and the reporting of diseased or defective children to the parents. The law also required the school committee in every city or town—with a population less than forty thousand—to see that every child in the public schools was separately and carefully tested and examined at least once in every school year in order to ascertain whether he was suffering from defective sight or hearing, or from any other disability or defect tending to prevent his receiving the full benefit of his school work. Such a law inevitably meant not only better health for the pupils, but a discovery of individual weaknesses—especially defects in eyes or ears—a discovery which proved of great value to the teacher in dealing with the pupil.

In this same year (1909) the mill tax was doubled, and thus increased State aid for the schools was made possible. An act passed in 1872 created the first mill tax fund in Maine. By this a tax of one mill on a dollar was assessed upon all property in the State for the support of common schools. In 1907 this tax was raised to one mill and a half, and in 1909 was again raised to three mills. This meant a decided increase in the sinews of war.

That State aid might be equitably distributed, the Equilization Act was passed in 1909. This authorized the State Superintendent to recommend to the Governor and Council that increased aid be given to those towns in which the tax rates for common schools were excessive. In 1913 the Legislature set aside for this purpose forty thousand dollars. Thus were the educational opportunities for all the boys and girls of the State made more nearly equal. In 1909 it was enacted that towns should maintain schools for at least twenty-six weeks each year, instead of twenty, as formerly.

In 1913 a law was passed that no pupil of any public school should be a member of any secret society whatsoever that was in any degree a school organization. This removed a long-existing source of friction in the secondary schools.

Perhaps the greatest step in advance in Mr. Smith's administration was

the establishment of the Superintendents' Conference at Castine. The unification of the administrative educational agencies of the State was a distinct part of Mr. Smith's policy. The schools must have the strength that comes from union. In the summer of 1909 he invited all the superintendents of the State to meet at Castine—a beautiful seaside town. Here they met in the buildings of the State Normal School. Some of the best educators obtainable addressed them, but probably the greatest benefit to the schools came from their own discussions. Here the State Superintendent could reach more quickly and effectively the very men whom it was absolutely necessary to reach before almost any reform could be accomplished. By threshing out the subjects thoroughly in a wide-awake, good-natured discussion, and by setting forth clearly expressed, well-defined policies on which they could fairly well agree, the school men were often able to make as much progress in two years as before could be made in ten. Since 1909 this annual Superintendents' Conference at Castine has been highly valued as an all-important part of the educational work of the State.

Mr. Smith, much to the regret of all friends of good schools in Maine, resigned on June 30, 1916, to become Commissioner of Education in Massachusetts. The permanent appointment of his successor was long delayed, apparently for political reasons. Mr. Glenn W. Starkey, who had been Deputy Superintendent, was appointed to fill the position temporarily, and he did this difficult task to the satisfaction of all concerned. His report, published December 31, 1916, is a clear statement of the progress that was being achieved in Maine schools. Its facts and figures furnish an interesting contrast to those published in 1829, or in 1855. From Mr. Starkey's report—the latest published up to the present time—we find that on April 1, 1916, the whole number of persons in the State between the ages of five and twenty-one years was 226,237, of which 113,942 were boys and 112,295 were girls; that the number of pupils registered in the common schools was 133,407 and in the high schools 15,144; that the average length of the school year was thirty-six weeks; that the average monthly wages of male teachers in the common schools were \$56.94 and of female teachers, \$44.15; of male teachers in the high schools, \$112.47, and of female teachers, \$66; that the amount for pensions during the year, paid to 193 retired teachers, was \$22,921; that the amount raised by the towns for the support of common schools in 1915 was \$872,488, and the amount available from State school funds, \$1,559,236.

This report also shows that during the year 1916 the first attempt was made to reorganize thoroughly the schools of a town on the so-called "six and six" plan, the upper grades being divided into a junior and a senior high school. This reorganization was accomplished by Superintendent W. D. Fuller, of Old Town, now of Portland.

We also find in this report that the General Education Board appropriated \$5,600 to be expended in Maine, beginning January 1, 1916, under the direction of the State Superintendent. This was for the special pur-

pose of employing two agents for work in the rural schools. The agents selected were Mr. Harold A. Allan, of Auburn, from 1909 to 1915 Deputy State Superintendent, and Miss Florence M. Hale, an experienced teacher from the Aroostook Normal School. It was their special task not only to arouse an interest in good schools among the people of the rural districts, but also to furnish every assistance possible in securing for the schools better physical surroundings, more attractive and hygienic school rooms and better methods of instruction. Since their appointment they have done this with tact, resourcefulness and untiring industry.

In this report is also a good statement of the school work done in unorganized townships, of which Maine has a comparatively large number. To provide schools for the boys and girls of these plantations has forced upon the State an almost unique problem. For the last twenty years, little by little, the solution has been coming. The supervision of these schools, together with those on remote islands, and of the schooling of children living in light stations along the coast, has been left in the hands of one man, a special agent, in 1916, Mr. G. W. Gordon. From his statement we find that in that year free schooling was furnished to every child living in Maine, for more than seven hundred boys and girls in the seventy-two unorganized townships; and that a traveling "light-house teacher" went from station to station along the coast carefully instructing the pupils of one station for a week, and carefully outlining the work they were to do under the guidance of their parents before she came back again. The money expended for the schooling of children in the remote parts of the State amounted in 1916 to \$28,534.87. When we consider the large expanse of unorganized territory in Maine, we may well take pride that the State Department of Education is able to send the teacher and the spelling book, with all the other benefits of free schooling, to the loneliest settlement in the deep forest or to the humblest fishing hut on the remote islands of the coast. And this is done, we know, because the people of the State believe that an ignorant population is a menace to a free commonwealth.

On July 1, 1917, Dr. Augustus O. Thomas, of Nebraska, became State Superintendent of the Public Schools of Maine. Dr. Thomas for two years was State Superintendent of Public Instruction in Nebraska, and before that for nine years president of the State Normal School at Kearney. A year and a half is too short a time on which to base any just criticism or sound prophecy concerning a State Superintendent's work. But this we know: that Dr. Thomas comes with excellent training and broad experience; that he is a good public speaker and makes friends easily; that he is a thoughtful, enthusiastic worker, well versed in the rural school problem which has often loomed large in Maine; and that at the same time he is interested in the progress of city schools, and especially in the problems of industrial education and of trade schools such as the Smith-Hughes Act has made possible for our large manufacturing towns and cities. And we know that he has taken hold of his work with vigor and confidence. Dr. Thomas came

to Maine at a fortunate time. The schools are awake and progressive and the people are ready to spend their money to make them better. Every school of the State is under expert supervision; the superintendents are alive and forward-looking.

With all these things in our favor, we may believe we are fairly well equipped to do well the work before us, fairly well prepared for what is probably to be the great educational task in this State for the next ten years: to work out for the average boy and girl a kind of education that shall appeal to all their powers—hand, head, and heart; that shall not be so remote from daily needs and ordinary living as was the old training in Greek and Latin; but at the same time shall have its depth and coherence, and not the superficiality and incoherence of the modern so-called business course or vocational training. Thus shall we be kept from breeding a race of poor scholars and crooked thinkers and therefore undesirable citizens. The history of education in our State leads us to face the future with courage.

THE COLLEGES OF THE STATE.

Bowdoin College.—Bowdoin is the oldest college in Maine, indeed older than the State itself. Its charter, granted by the General Court of Massachusetts, was signed June 24, 1794. It was named in honor of a much-admired Governor of Massachusetts, who died in 1791, Hon. James Bowdoin. The first president of the college was Rev. Joseph McKeen, a graduate of Dartmouth, and for sixteen years pastor of the church in Beverly, Massachusetts. The first member of the faculty, besides the president, was Jacob Abbott, professor of ancient languages. The president was inaugurated in September, 1802, and the day after, with eight students, the college opened for active work in Massachusetts Hall, the only building that had been finished.

The first benefactor of the college was Hon. James Bowdoin, son of Governor Bowdoin. As early as 1794 he gave to the college \$1,000, and 1,000 acres of land, valued at \$3,000. Before 1802 he gave \$2,800 for the establishment of a professorship of mathematics and natural and experimental philosophy. Shortly before his death he gave to the college 6,000 more acres of land. He bequeathed to it many valuable books and paintings which he had collected during four years' residence abroad. The college was also made his residuary legatee and received from his estate more than \$33,000.

In 1805 the chair of mathematics and natural philosophy was established, and Parker Cleaveland was chosen to fill it. For fifty years he served the college with great distinction. He early published a treatise on mineralogy which attracted most favorable attention both in this country and abroad, and brought renown to himself and the little "down-east" college. It was of Parker Cleaveland that Longfellow wrote his sonnet beginning:

"Among the many lives that I have known,
None I remember more serene and sweet,
More rounded in itself and more complete,
Than his who lies beneath this funeral stone."

At the first Commencement, in September, 1806, a memorable event in the District of Maine, the degree of A.B. was conferred upon seven young men. This was the first class to be graduated under President McKeen; and it was also the last, for on July 15, 1807, he died. Rev. Jesse Appleton, of Hampton, New Hampshire, a graduate of Dartmouth and an eminent divine, was his successor. Dr. Appleton, whose inaugural address dealt largely with the subject of college discipline, throughout his administration laid great stress upon watchfulness of the moral and spiritual welfare of the students. Under his guidance the college went forward. Its number of students increased to fifty and more; its new dormitory was finished in 1808; and throughout the State the college gained a reputation for "good morals and sound scholarship." After thirteen years of devoted service, President Appleton died with these words upon his lips: "God has taken care of the college and God will take care of it."

In December, 1819, Rev. William Allen, a graduate of Harvard, who had been pastor of the church at Pittsfield, Massachusetts, and but recently at the head of the short-lived Dartmouth University, was unanimously chosen president. During his administration, in 1820, the Legislature of Maine "established under the control, superintendence and direction of the president, trustees, and overseers of Bowdoin College a medical school for the instruction of students in medicine, anatomy, surgery, chemistry, mineralogy and botany." An increase in the number of students necessitated the building of another dormitory, which was finished in 1822 and which was called at first New, then North, College, and, in 1848, was given the name of Winthrop Hall. But President Allen's administration is to be remembered most of all for the men whom he had upon his faculty, men of sound scholarship and strong personality, all of whom left a deep impress upon the undergraduates. Besides the "magnificent and massive" Cleaveland, there was Samuel Phillips Newman, gentle and courteous, "the faithful friend, the skillful and patient teacher, the accomplished Christian gentleman," from 1820 to 1824 professor of ancient languages, and from 1824 to 1839 professor of rhetoric and oratory. There was Alpheus Spring Packard, for more than three score years an able and devoted servant of the college, from 1824 to 1865 professor of ancient languages, and from 1865 to 1884 professor of natural and revealed religion. There was William Smyth, "indomitable and uncompromising, stern in principle, rough in exterior, yet of finest sensibilities, a Greatheart in courage and kindness," professor of mathematics from 1825 to 1868. There was Thomas Cogswell Upham, "sensitive and saintly, half hermit, half man of the world, a most extraordinary combination of bashful modesty and unflinching boldness," professor of mental and moral philosophy from 1824 to 1867. And

there, too, as first professor of modern languages from 1829 to 1835, was the handsome and brilliant young poet, Henry Wadsworth Longfellow.

And the students who attended Bowdoin, especially during the first part of President Allen's administration, were a remarkable group of young men, if we may judge at all by what they accomplished in later years. "A more remarkable class never gathered under an American college roof-tree than the Bowdoin class of 1825," Dr. Lyman Abbott, a graduate of Harvard, once wrote. Perhaps in the history of no other American college can be found at any time a larger group of students who afterwards achieved a national reputation. There were William Pitt Fessenden, Franklin Pierce, Calvin Stowe, John S. C. Abbott, James W. Bradbury, Horatio Bridge, George Cheever, Jonathan Cilley, John P. Hale, Seargent S. Prentiss, Henry W. Longfellow, and Nathaniel Hawthorne.

Dr. Allen resigned in 1839, and Dr. Leonard Woods, Jr., professor of biblical literature in Bangor Theological Seminary, was chosen as his successor. His method of disciplining students by dealing with them sympathetically as fellow human beings attracted attention, for it was practically new in the educational world. In 1841-42, \$70,000, chiefly contributed by the Congregationalists of New England, was added to the fund. From 1845 to 1855, largely through the efforts of President Woods, an impressive granite chapel was erected—a building which has since become dear to many a Bowdoin man. In 1852 the college gratefully and enthusiastically celebrated its semi-centennial. From 1861 to 1865 its numbers were greatly reduced, for from Bowdoin a larger percentage of graduates and undergraduates went into the Civil War than from any other northern college. In 1866 President Woods resigned, after nearly thirty years of successful work, during which time more than one thousand students had come under the influence of his cultured mind and gracious personality.

The first graduate of Bowdoin to become its president was Rev. Samuel Harris, of Bangor Seminary. During his presidency two strong science teachers, Professor George L. Goodale and Professor E. S. Morse, were added to the faculty, and the science instruction was greatly improved by requiring from the students individual laboratory work. Dr. Harris proved a good administrator, but in 1871 he resigned to become professor of theology at Yale University.

Bowdoin's fifth president was Gen. Joshua L. Chamberlain, of the Class of 1852, a graduate of Bangor Seminary, a former professor of rhetoric in the college, who had had a brilliant career in the Civil War and had served four terms as Governor of the State. In 1871 a scientific department "parallel with but entirely distinct from the academic department" was founded. For ten years this department was maintained, and sent out some men who have been eminently successful, among them Charles D. Jameson, consulting engineer to the Chinese government; Alfred E. Burton, dean of Massachusetts Institute of Technology; and also Admiral Robert E. Peary, the discoverer of the North Pole. During President Chamberlain's

administration, and largely through his efforts, an alumni endowment fund of \$100,000 was raised, and Memorial Hall was also built. In 1883 President Chamberlain resigned, and for the next two years the executive work of the college was done partly by Professor Packard but chiefly by Professor Henry L. Chapman.

Rev. William DeWitt Hyde was chosen president in 1885. He was then the youngest president in the country, and among the most sanely progressive. During the thirty-three years of his presidency the college went forward steadily and often rapidly. The system of student government, devised in 1883 largely by Professor Charles H. Smith, met with his heartiest co-operation. The curriculum was greatly broadened and the number of elective studies largely increased. The teaching staff was more than doubled and the number of students was more than trebled. The endowment fund was almost octupled. Besides the astronomical observatory and the Hubbard grandstand, five splendid buildings costing more than \$800,000 were added to the equipment. At the same time Bowdoin's standard of scholarship was held high; and President Hyde himself by his books, magazine articles and scholarly public addresses, brought renown to the college. In 1917, after a most vigorous and successful administration, he died at the age of fifty-eight years.

In June, 1918, Kenneth C. M. Sills, LL.D., of the Class of 1901, who had been professor of Latin for twelve years, eight years of that time also dean of the college and one year acting-president, was chosen to fill President Hyde's place. Dr. Sills begins his presidential career with brilliant promise. The college today has an endowment of more than two and one-half million dollars. It has an excellent equipment—including a rare art building, one of the biggest and best gymnasiums in the country, and a new finely-equipped, well-staffed, well-endowed infirmary. It has a library of more than 120,000 volumes. It has a loyal and united body of alumni. Just before the war it had a faculty of thirty men and a student body of 435. It has emerged from the war, conscious, like the other colleges of the State, of having done its patriotic duty. It did its best for the Students' Army Training Corps. Eight of its faculty and more than twenty-six per cent. of its graduates have been in the Service. In this war twenty-five Bowdoin men have given their lives for the ideals of humanity and righteousness which Bowdoin College for more than one hundred years has been teaching to her boys.

Colby College.—Colby College, during its more than one hundred years of existence, has had four different names: The Maine Literary and Theological Institution (1813-1821); Waterville College (1821-1867); Colby University (1867-1899); and Colby College (1899—). It owes its origin to the Baptist churches in the District of Maine. Bowdoin College was avowedly Congregationalist. Its presidents were Congregational ministers, and its faculty and the majority of its governing boards were of that denomination. The ministers and other members of the Baptist

churches in the District felt that they had no voice in moulding the policies of that college, and they desired an institution where their sons could be trained, especially for the ministry, under Baptist instruction. In response to their petitions the General Court of Massachusetts granted to them a charter in February, 1813.

On October 1, 1817, the location of the new institution was fixed at Waterville. Rev. Jeremiah Chaplin of Danvers, Massachusetts, was chosen professor of theology; and on July 6, 1818, instruction in the seminary commenced. By May, 1819, there were seventeen theological students. In October, 1819, the literary department began its work with about twenty-five students, under the direction of Rev. Avery Briggs, professor of languages.

In June, 1820, the Legislature of the new State of Maine gave to the new institution authority to confer degrees and granted to it a sum of \$1,000 annually for a term of seven years. It also, on February 5, 1821, changed the name of the institution to Waterville College.

The first president, elected in 1821, was Professor Chaplin. At this time there were seventeen students in the literary and five in the theological department. At the first Commencement, August 21, 1822, the degree of A. B. was conferred upon two young men.

The equipment of the college then consisted of the President's house and two brick dormitories, South College and North College, built in 1821 and 1822. In 1833 there were professorships in mathematics and natural philosophy, rhetoric and Hebrew, Greek and Latin. As in 1833 there were no students in the theological department, the chair of sacred theology was vacated. In 1834 the chair of modern languages was established. For three years, 1830-31-32, Waterville College conferred the degree of M. D. upon the graduates of the recently established Clinical School of Medicine in Woodstock, Vermont. Fifty-five medical students thus received their degrees.

Today, when we are hearing so much about industrial education, it is interesting to find that as early as 1831 Waterville College tried the experiment of combining manual and mental training. Between 1831 and 1842 the college built three workshops. The work in these shops—the making of doors, blinds, tables, chairs, and later of carriages, together with painting and printing—was done by the students under the oversight of a superintendent. Each student had his special task, was required to work three hours a day, and was paid for his work. Indeed, the purpose of the experiment seems to have been more to give the students a chance to earn money than to train them in manual labor. Perhaps it was for this reason that it failed, and the workshops became “a useless monument of misjudged expenditure.”

In 1833 President Chaplin resigned, and Rev. Rufus Babcock, Jr., of Salem, Massachusetts, was chosen as his successor. These were critical days for the college. Two of its professors had resigned with President

the Cobden Club. In the preparation of Johnson's "Cyclopedia" he served as associate editor, and contributed some of its most notable articles. He contributed a vast number of valuable articles to different periodicals which have produced a marked effect. The degree of LL.D. was conferred upon him in 1853, by Waterville College, now Colby University, and in 1882 by the regents of the University of New York.

Dr. Anderson married, in 1848, Elizabeth M., daughter of Joshua Gilbert, of New York City. Dr. Anderson retired from office in 1888, at which time the total property of the university was valued at \$1,191,319; and the total number of students, was 172. Owing to feeble health he made Florida his winter home. His wife died at Lake Helen in that State, February 21, 1890, and on February 26th her husband followed her. The property they possessed, as they had no children, was devised to the university.

RUFUS ANDERSON, clergyman and author, was born at North Yarmouth, Cumberland county, August 17, 1796, son of Rev. Rufus and Hannah (Parsons) Anderson. He was graduated from Bowdoin College in 1818, and from Andover Theological Seminary in 1822. He was ordained in 1820, and served as assistant secretary of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions, 1824-1832, and as secretary, 1832-1866, visiting in that capacity the mission stations on the Mediterranean in 1843, the Indian Missions in 1854, and those of the Sandwich Islands in 1863. On leaving the Board of Foreign Missions he received a testimonial of \$20,000 from Boston and New York merchants. He turned the greater part of this sum over to the Board. From 1867 to 1869 he lectured on foreign missions at Andover Seminary. He was the author of "Catherine Brown" (1825); "Observations on Peloponnesus and the Greek Islands" (1828); "Irish Missions in the Early Ages" (1839); "Bartimeus" (1851); "Missions in the Levant" (1860); "The Hawaiian Islands; Their Progress and Condition" (1864); "Foreign Missions: Their Relations and Claims" (1869); "A Heathen Nation Civilized" (1870); "A History of the Missions of the American Board to the Oriental Churches" (1872). Dr. Anderson died May 30, 1880.

JOHN ALBION ANDREW, War Governor, was born on May 31, 1818, at Windham, Maine, to which place his father had moved from Massachusetts the year before. He was educated at home, at various academies and at Bowdoin College, receiving his B.A. in 1837. His father then returned to Massachusetts, and Andrew began the study of law in Boston and was duly admitted to the Bar in 1840. He ultimately built up a good practice, but his progress was slow. This was partly due to poor health, partly to the fact that he would rather talk than work, cared more for poetry than statutes, and spent time reading Byron aloud which should have been devoted to studying law reports. Another obstacle to financial success was Andrew's great kindness of heart. He was accustomed to

visit the prisons on Sundays, and often took the cases of the men he met there. His office was filled with human flotsam and jetsam, and he never refused his aid. A brother lawyer once said to him: "I thank God that there is one man at the bar to look out for the poor devils of criminals who are guilty enough and have no friends and no money." Andrew spent much time in efforts to secure the abolition of capital punishment, and reforms in the laws of usury and divorce. When James Freeman Clarke founded the Church of the Disciples, Andrew was attracted by the tolerance and the strong sense of fellowship of the new society, and became a very active member.

From boyhood, Andrew had been a wholehearted opponent of slavery and he continued to fight it in Boston, but he did not become a real political leader until 1858. He then forged rapidly to the front. He was helped by his sociable, lovable nature, but the chief reason of his success was his power as a public speaker. "He never lightened his discourse with stories or illustrations, he was fond of rather long poetical quotations, yet his rapid succession of short climaxes, loosely bound together, all preparing the way for one strong stroke at the end, never failed to hold an audience captive." His best speeches were extemporaneous. "The speech could not be prepared. the effect could neither be repeated nor preserved. His eloquence gushed forth from his mind like a flood of delirious music, in obedience to an irrepressible law of his being." A highly emotional man, Andrew did not always preserve his self-control, and might have repelled "a select and deliberating assembly, but in a mass convention or before a mixed audience he was superior to any man of his time in the State (Massachusetts) except Phillips."

In 1860 the Republicans of Massachusetts elected Andrew governor. He was four times re-elected, and won a place in the very front rank of the great "War Governors." In close touch with friends in Washington who saw and even in some respects exaggerated the public danger, Andrew, despite opposition and ridicule, caused preparations to be made which enabled Massachusetts to be the first of all the States to put armed reinforcements into Washington and Fortress Monroe. From that moment he was almost indefatigable, toiling terribly that the nation's calls might be answered, and equally careful that no injustice which he could possibly avert, should befall Massachusetts or any of her soldiers. He took a chief part in the raising of negro troops and in securing for them equal privileges with white soldiers. He made mistakes, of course; he sometimes took too narrow a view; his readiness to give a man another chance, caused some bad appointments, but on the whole his governorship was most honorable to himself and useful to his country. On retiring from office he made a valedictory address in which he gave clear warning that no plan of reconstruction could succeed which rejected the co-operation of the Southern leaders. "The capacity of leadership," he said, "is a gift, not a device. They whose courage, talents and will entitle them to lead will lead."

After leaving office, Andrew resumed his practice at the bar and took little part in politics. He, however, appeared as counsel for the petitioners for the repeal of the prohibitory law, his argument showed great ability and research, and the Legislature repealed the law. Andrew knew that in acting as he did he would offend many of his best and firmest supporters, but on this as on other occasions he did not hesitate to oppose his closest friends in defense of a cause which he deemed to be right. His action was the more noble as he was not without political ambition and a reasonable hope of gratifying it. He was highly regarded throughout the country and he would have been strongly supported for the second place on the Republican ticket in 1868, but on October 30, 1867, he suffered an apoplectic shock and died the next day. He was mourned by State and Nation and by all sorts and conditions of men. His great services were duly recalled to mind, but "for all this recognition of high fame, men's sorrow everywhere was less for the power than for the goodness that was gone from the world. * * * His great labors for his country and for a despised race had been but a part of his daily obedience to the command, 'Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself'." [L. C. H.]

FORDYCE BARKER, Physician, was born at Wilton, Maine, on May 2, 1818. He was educated at the local academy and at Bowdoin College, graduating in 1837. In college he was noted "for his love of music, his skill as a vocal and instrumental performer, his social talents, his wit and exuberance of spirits." He studied a year in the Boston hospitals under Dr. Henry N. Bowditch, and spent three years at the Bowdoin Medical School, receiving his M.D. in 1841. He selected Norwich, Connecticut, as his place of residence, and remained there most of the time until 1850. During this period, however, he visited and studied in Europe and taught for a short time in the Bowdoin Medical School. In 1850 he removed to New York, where his progress was slow. "Yet no one who knew Dr. Barker * * * doubted for a moment his ultimate success. He was handsome, ambitious and hardworking. Though he could not be extravagant, there was always a seat at his table for a friend. His loyal wife made every one welcome. From the outset he gained admittance to the literary circles of the city. In 1857 he removed from a patient by enucleation, a uterine submucous fibroid. The woman had previously consulted the most eminent surgeons of London and Paris. They had given her no encouragement. She was a member of a large and influential family. When she recovered, Dr. Barker was adopted by the entire clan. To his dying day these early friends sustained his fortunes, fought his battles, and were jealous of his rivals. From this time forth his career was a succession of triumphs. He was an excellent practitioner, kind and sympathetic. He was an ingenious therapist, with more faith in hygiene than in tartar emetic. He loved his profession and kept abreast with

*Pearson, "Life of John A. Andrew."

every advance in science. The confidence and affection he inspired in his patients was almost touching." An intimate friend and colleague says that at the time when his every moment was of value, he never showed impatience when called upon to render professional aid to old friends overtaken by adversity. He attained high positions and was president of the New York Academy of Medicine from 1879 to 1885. He received the degree of LL.D. from Bowdoin, Columbia, Edinburgh and Glasgow. An honorary degree was also offered him by the University of Bologna at its seven hundred and fiftieth anniversary, but he was unable to attend. Dr. Barker was a good speaker, and his success as a medical lecturer was marked. His specialty was puerperal disease, and he published an elaborate work on the subject. Dr. Lust of New York says: "This, the product of his ripened experience, is probably the best piece of medical literary workmanship this country has produced. To be sure the doctrine inculcated is now dead, killed by the investigations of Koch and Pasteur, but it must be recognized that it did good work in its time by checking the prevailing tendency to exclusivism which insisted that puerperal fever was—some—single form of uterine inflammation." [L. C. H.]

Dr. Barker died in New York on May 30, 1891.

ARLO BATES, poet, author and editor, was born in East Machias, Maine, December 16, 1850, son of Niran and Susan (Thaxter) Bates. His father was a man of unusual literary taste and acquirement, and the most accomplished surgeon in his part of the country.

Arlo Bates completed his school education in his native State, and, entering Bowdoin College, was graduated in 1876. While in college he was for a while editor-in-chief of the "Bowdoin Orient," and had several stories published in the magazines. With this beginning, he determined to make literature his life work, and accordingly after graduation settled in Boston and began industriously contributing to the press. His pertinacity was unflinching and his zeal of such a quality as not to be discouraged by the unvarying ill-success of all young writers. Finally, however, he obtained a footing with the magazines, and grew in public favor as one of the brilliant young poets of the day. He began his editorial career in January, 1878, as editor of "The Broadside," a paper devoted to the cause of civil service reform, and published under the auspices of the Young Men's Republican Committee of Massachusetts. In 1880 he became editor-in-chief of the Boston "Sunday Courier," which he continued to manage until 1893. In the meanwhile his ability as a writer brought him recognition in all circles, and in 1893 he became professor of English literature and composition in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Besides numerous short poems, tales and articles in the magazines, Professor Bates is the author of "Patty's Perversities," a novel in the "Round Robin Series" (1881); "Mr. F. Seymour Hayden and Engraving" (1882); "Mr.

*Coll. Me. Hist. Soc., II.; IV, 225-240.

Jacobs," a parody on Marion Crawford's "Mr. Isaacs" (1883); "The Pagans" (1884); "A Wheel of Fire" (1885); "Berries of the Brier," a collection of verse (1886); "A Lad's Love"; a Campobello story (1887); "Sonnets in Shadow" (1887); "The Philistines" (1889); "Albrecht" (1890); "A Book o' Nine Tales" (1891); "Told in the Gate" (1892); "In the Bundle of Time" (1893); "The Torch Bearers" (1894); "Talks on Writing English" (1896), and "Talks on the Study of Literature" (1897). Another novel, "Ties of Blood," appeared as a serial in the "Courier" in 1892. Mr. Bates is socially very popular; a poet in life as also in writing. He is a member of the St. Botolph and Tavern clubs, and other social and literary organizations. He was married September 5, 1882, to Harriet Leonora, daughter of Professor George L. Vose of Brunswick, Maine. With her he wrote "Prince Vance," published in 1888, and after her death he prepared for the press her sketches, "Old Salem" (1886), and a novel, "A Woodland Wooing" (1889). In her memory he wrote "Sonnets in Shadow," which was dedicated to her.

EDWARD AUGUSTUS BRACKETT, Sculptor, was born in Vassalborough, Maine, October 1. 1819. He was noted for his characteristic busts of Longfellow, Bryant, Dana, Sumner, Choate, Allston, Phillips, Garrison, General Butler, and many others. His most important ideal work was a life-size group in marble entitled "The Shipwrecked Mother and Child," which was exhibited in Boston and New York in 1852, and was for many years in the Boston Athenaeum.

WALTER M. BRACKETT, Artist, was born at Unity, Maine, in 1823, brother of Edward Augustus Brackett, sculptor. He began his professional work in Boston in 1843, where he was at first a portrait painter. He afterwards devoted his time wholly to the painting of game fish. An art critic in a leading journal said of him: "Walter M. Brackett is acknowledged by all to stand without an American peer at the head of his special department of painting. One artist only, Rolfe of England, is ever named as his rival as a painter of fish." He joined the Boston Art Club at its organization, serving as president for several years. A series of his paintings which portray the process of catching a salmon: "The Rise," "The Leap," "The Last Struggle," and "Landed," exhibited at the Crystal Palace, London, were purchased by Sir Richard Potter.

NOAH BROOKS, Author, was born at Castine, Maine, on October 24, 1830. At eighteen he went to Boston and began to study landscape painting, which he intended to make his life work, but he soon abandoned the brush for the pen. He made frequent contributions to the magazines and newspapers and became a member of the regular staff of the "Atlas." In 1855 he went West, finally proceeding as far as California. He was obliged to use ox-teams to cross the plains, and had many adventures of which he later made good use in his stories. In California he published a news-

paper, but in 1862 he went to Washington as correspondent of the Sacramento "Union." At the capital he renewed a former acquaintance with President Lincoln and accepted the offer of the position of his private secretary in succession to John G. Nicolay, but the President was murdered before Mr. Brooks took office. President Johnson appointed him naval officer at San Francisco, but a year and a half later removed him for political reasons. From 1866 to 1871 he was editor of the "Alta Californian." He returned to New York in 1871 and was an editor on the staff of "The Tribune" and "The Times" until 1884, when he became editor of the Newark "Daily Advertiser." In 1892 he abandoned newspaper work and devoted himself to writing popular books and articles. He made his winter home in New York, his summer home in Castine, Maine.

Mr. Brooks was an extremely ready writer, and he wrote numerous stories for boys which are clean, interesting and instructive. He also wrote some biographical and historical works of the highest class "popular" type. Perhaps the most valuable work is his "Washington in Lincoln's Time." Several books are specially connected with Maine. His second story was "The Fairport Nine," and "Fairport" is really Castine. He also wrote "Tales of the Maine Coast," and a "Life of Knox." Mr. Brooks died at Castine in 1903. [L. C. H.]

CHARLES FARRAR BROWNE (Artemus Ward), Humorist, was born at Waterford, Maine, April 29, 1834. His father was a land surveyor and justice of the peace; his mother was descended from Puritan stock. Browne himself once said: "I think we came from Jerusalem, for my mother's name was Levi, and we had a Moses and a Nathan in the family, but my poor brother's name was Cyrus, so perhaps that makes us Persians."

He was educated in his native town, and apprenticed in the office of the Skowhegan "Clarion." When fifteen years old he went to the office of "The Carpet Bag," at Boston, Massachusetts, edited by the late B. P. Shillaber ("Mrs. Partington"). Here he wrote his first article for the press, in a disguised hand, and slipped it into the editorial box, and the next day concealed his pleasure while setting it up himself. It was a description of a Fourth of July celebration at Skowhegan. While in Boston the young humorist carefully studied the theatre and courted the society of actors and actresses. After his Boston experience he traveled as a journeyman printer over much of the States of Massachusetts and New York, finally locating at Tiffin, Ohio, where as reporter and compositor he received in wages four dollars per week. Going to Toledo, Ohio, he became known as a writer of sarcastic paragraphs in the "Commercial" of that city, and in 1858 Mr. J. W. Gray of the "Plain Dealer," in Cleveland, Ohio, secured him as a reporter at a salary of \$12 per week. His first communication signed "Artemus Ward" was written in Cleveland, but was dated from Indiana, and here he first became in words the possessor of a "Moral Show," consisting of "three moral bares, a kangaroo, wax

figures of G. Washington," etc. Hundreds of newspapers copied this letter and its author awoke one morning to find himself famous. Hearing many of his own stories repeated in the Cleveland minstrel shows and circuses, the project of public lecturing came again to his mind. Late in 1860 he made an engagement with the proprietor of "Vanity Fair" in New York City, and ere long succeeded Charles G. Leland as its editor. The paper was not long-lived. Turning again to the lecture platform, he appeared in New York, December 23, 1861, with his lecture, "The Babes in the Woods," having previously delivered it at Norwich, Connecticut, where it had a favorable reception. His first volume, "Artemus Ward: His Book," was published in New York in May, 1862, and more than forty thousand copies were sold. Great success attended the issue of his other three books in 1865, 1867, and 1869. "Sixty Minutes in Africa" was the title of his next lecture. It was given in Musical Fund Hall, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. On October 3, 1863, Mr. Browne started for the Pacific coast, having answered a telegram which had asked him what he would take "for forty nights in California," with "Brandy and water. A. Ward." "Babes in the Woods" was given in San Francisco, November 13, 1863. In the fall of 1864 he lectured to immense audiences in New York City on "The Mormons." In the spring of 1865 he began his lecturing tour through the United States and drew out enthusiastic crowds all over the country. "Among the Mormons" was especially popular. The ticket of admission read: "Admit the bearer and one wife, Yours trooly, A. Ward."

In 1866, Mr. Browne sailed for England, and his stay in that country was one continued ovation. Charles Reade, the novelist, was his close friend, and he became a great favorite at the Literary Club. In literary circles his letters in the "London Punch" were much remarked upon. Immense crowds were turned away from his lectures at Egyptian Hall in London, which began in November of that year. During the seventh week of his engagement there, however, he became seriously ill and was forced to go to the Island of Jersey in the effort to regain his health, but was so weak that he was soon brought back to Southampton, England, where he died March 6, 1867. His remains were brought to his native land and interred by his father's side in the quiet cemetery, at Waterford, Maine.

ANNIE LOUISE CARY, Singer, was born in Wayne, Maine, October 22, 1842. Early in life she went to Boston, where in her eighteenth year she was an ambitious student, and greatly developed her voice. Thereafter she sang in church choirs. During her six years residence in that city she appeared at concerts in various cities of New England, and in her twenty-fourth year went to Europe to finish her education under prominent vocal teachers, and spent about three years in Milan. After completing her studies, Miss Cary sang with an opera company in Copenhagen, afterward went to Gottenberg, Christiania and Stockholm, spending several seasons,

making occasional short tours to France and Germany. She was several times heard at Brussels, Hamburg, and other cities in Germany. In 1869 while in Baden Baden, she received instructions from Signora Viardot-Garcia. In 1870 she was again heard in Brussels, and the same season appeared with considerable success at the Italian Opera in London. Returning to the United States, she sang for a time at concerts and then became connected with the Italian Opera Company at the New York Academy of Music. She continued with this company about six years, and was heard in most the large cities of the Union. She spent a season in Russia subsequently, and from 1877 to 1880 sang in operas, concerts and oratorios in this country. In 1882 she was married to Mr. Charles M. Raymond, of New York City and retired to private life.

GEORGE BARRELL CHEEVER was born on April 17, 1807. He graduated from Bowdoin in the famous class of 1825, fitted for the ministry at Andover Seminary, and in 1832 became pastor of the Howard Street Congregational Church of Salem. From the first, the Rev. Mr. Cheever made it abundantly evident that he belonged to the church militant. He took an active part in the Unitarian controversy, attacking the views of the new denomination with great vigor. He assailed the liquor traffic with total disregard of consequences to himself. An article^a in a newspaper, "Inquire at Deacon Giles' Distillery," so aroused popular feeling that not only was the building where the paper was published defaced under cover of night, but Mr. Cheever was openly assaulted on the street. Deacon Giles prosecuted Mr. Cheever for libel and he was convicted and served thirty days in jail. Undismayed, he renewed his war on intemperance, and continued the fight until a breakdown from overwork compelled him to go to Europe. On his return he took up his residence in New York City, where he led a busy life as pastor and editor of a religious paper until 1870, when he retired to a beautiful home on the Hudson and lived in comparative retirement until his death, which occurred on October 1, 1890.

Mr. Cheever was most earnest in denouncing wrong as he saw it. He became a prominent leader in the anti-slavery fight. He defended the use of the Bible in the public schools, and in reply to Bishop Hughes delivered a series of lectures, afterward published, on "Hierarchical Despotism." In spite of his radical views of temperance and slavery, he was on some questions a steady conservative. He thought traveling on Sunday wrong, and he favored capital punishment. Late in life he was described as engaged, "with the earnestness of younger days, in a defense of the truth against the assaults of science."

[L. C. H.]

^aThe article, a supposed dream, gave such an impetus to the temperance movement that it was compared to "Uncle Tom's Cabin" and John S. C. Abbott said: "There is, perhaps, no one of the Bowdoin Class of 1825 who has produced a deeper impression on the American community than George B. Cheever."

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN CLARKE, Educator, was born at Newport, Maine, July 14, 1831, son of Thomas Clarke, farmer, born at Wells, Maine, and Martha (Whitten) Clarke, a native of the same State.

In early life Mr. Clarke followed farming, and also worked for some time at the machinist's trade. In 1859 he entered Brown University, where he was graduated in 1863, and from that period he remained in the service of his *alma mater*—as instructor, 1863-68; Professor of Mathematics, 1868-93; Professor of Mechanical Engineering, 1893. In 1896-97, during the absence of President Andrews, Professor Clarke was acting president of the university, and from the retirement of President Andrews until the induction of his successor (1898-99) served as president *ad interim*. In 1884 he published a eulogy on the life and labors of Samuel Stillman Greene, a worthy commemoration of that distinguished educator and honored professor in Brown University. Besides the degree of A.B., received at his graduation, Brown University conferred upon Professor Clarke in 1867 the degree of A.M. and in 1897 that of Sc.D. For many years he was a member of the Providence School Board. In 1864 he was married to Mary Elizabeth, daughter of Thomas and Joanna (Browning) Reynolds, of Providence. They had one daughter. Mr. Clarke died in 1908.

MACDONALD CLARKE, "the mad poet," was born on June 18, 1798, at Bath, Maine.* Of his childhood and youth little is known. At twenty-one he went to New York and remained there for the rest of his life, becoming a member of the circle in which Willis and Fitz-Greene Halleck were the leaders. He met with misfortunes, developed eccentricities, and finally became mentally unbalanced.

For many years his blue cloak, cloth cap, erect military air and beaming countenance made him one of the features of Broadway. He was ever in a glow of poetic reverie, and always celebrating in verses the belles of the town and the topics of the day. He was familiarly known in the street and in society as the mad poet, yet his oddities were all amiable; he had no vices, always preserved a gentility of deportment, and was a regular attendant of Grace Church. His death was very melancholy. Being picked up by a policeman late at night in an apparently destitute and demented condition, he was placed in the cell of the city prison, and in the morning found drowned by the flow of water from an open faucet. He was buried in Greenwood Cemetery, where a handsome monument was erected, with the inscription "Poor MacDonald Clarke!" His poems were of various character, humorous, sentimental, and indignant, containing many touches of delicate sensibility, and have a vein of tenderness pervading all their grotesqueness and irregularity. Some of the titles of the collections are: "A Review of the Eve of Eternity, and Other Poems," "The Elixir of Moonshine, by the Mad Poet," "The Gossip," "Poetic Sketches," and "The Belles of Broadway."

MacDonald Clarke is forgotten alike in the State of his birth and the

*His birthplace has been given as New London, Connecticut, but he left a manuscript stating that he was born in Bath.

city of his unhappy career, but worth remembering perhaps is something he said in a lucid interval shortly before his death: "Four things I am sure there will be in heaven—music, little children, flowers, and fresh air."¹

[L. C. H.]

REBECCA SOPHIA CLARKE, Author, was born at Norridgewock, Maine, February 22, 1833, daughter of Asa and Sophia (Bates) Clarke. Much of her early life was spent in her native town. From childhood she enjoyed writing, particularly in rhyme, but nothing of hers appeared in print until 1860, when a story, written by request, was published in the Memphis, Tennessee, "Daily Appeal." Soon after, this under the *nom de plume* of "Sophia (Sophie) May," she began contributing to Grace Greenwood's "Little Pilgrim" sundry sketches of a child named "Prudy Parlin," which attracted the attention of Charles A. Richardson, editor of the Boston "Congregationalist," and for him Miss Clarke continued her accounts of the little damsel whose name was thenceforth closely linked with that of "Sophie May." Beginning in 1864, four series of small books appeared, six volumes in each series respectively, known as the "Little Prudy," "Dotty Dimple," "Flyaway," and "Flaxie Frizzle" stories. Their sparkling humor and their fidelity to the ways and thoughts of children made them exceedingly popular with the young folk, for whom they were written; so much so, indeed, that Miss Clarke was aptly styled "the Dickens of the nursery." During the period 1894-96, a series of three volumes, entitled "Little Prudy's Children," and comprising "Wee Lucy," "Jimmy-Boy," and "Kyzie Dunlee," was published. Besides these juvenile works, Miss Clarke has written the "Quinnebasset Series," for young women, viz.: "The Doctor's Daughter"; "Our Helen"; "The Asbury Twins"; "Quinnebasset Girls"; "Janet"; and "In Old Quinnebasset." These were brought out from 1871 to 1881. Miss Clarke has written a novel, "Drone's Honey," which was published in 1887. She resides at Norridgewock, Maine, with her sister, Miss Sarah Clarke, who is favorably known as an author and writes under the assumed name of "Penn Shirley."

PARKER CLEAVELAND, Educator and Mineralogist, was born at Rowley, Massachusetts, on January 15, 1780. He graduated from Harvard University in 1799, and then taught schools at Haverhill, Massachusetts, and York, Maine. He hesitated long between the bar and the church, but finally decided in favor of the law. He advanced so far in his studies as to consider carefully where he should settle, and as President Leonard Woods expresses it in his address on Professor Cleaveland before the Maine Historical Society, "His attention appears to have been directed to this State * * * and to the region of the Penobscot, and to the fair city which crowns the head of its tide-waters, then just emerging from the wilderness." Judge Sewall, in reply to a request for advice, replied that

¹Cyclopaedia of National Biography.

²Unpublished Address on "Maine's Contribution to Literature," by John C. Minot.



PARKER CLEAVELAND HOUSE, BRUNSWICK



HOME OF HARRIET BEECHER STOWE, BRUNSWICK, WHERE
"UNCLE TOM'S CABIN" WAS WRITTEN



HOUSE OCCUPIED BY LONGFELLOW WHEN A PROFESSOR
AT BOWDOIN COLLEGE; LATER BY GEN. CHAMBER-
LAIN WHEN ITS PRESIDENT

he himself had never been further east than Wiscasset, but that somehow he had conceived an idea that the Penobscot river was the most extensive in the District (of Maine), and that a situation near the head of the tide, as it is called, in that river, would in some future period be a very considerable place of commerce; perhaps in the vicinity of Bangor, if I mistake not the name."

While Mr. Cleaveland was studying law, he had acted as tutor in mathematics and natural philosophy at Harvard, and in 1805 he was called to Bowdoin as professor in the same subject. "The appointment was at first objected to by some of his friends in Cambridge and the vicinity on the ground that it was wrong to attempt to deprive Harvard of so useful an instructor, and it was acquiesced in by them only when they were informed that he had before determined to leave Cambridge and that it would do much to raise the usefulness and reputation of that infantile seminary to which he was called." On October 23, 1805, the new Professor, then scarcely twenty-five years old, was inducted into office and continued as Professor with certain changes of title and duties until his death on October 15, 1858. When the Medical School of Maine was established he became lecturer on chemistry, secretary and librarian. In 1828 the name of his department was changed to that of chemistry, mineralogy and natural philosophy. During the long winter vacations of the years 1818-1822, Professor Cleaveland lectured on chemistry before delighted audiences at Hallowell, Portland and Portsmouth, New Hampshire.

While Mr. Cleaveland would have been successful in either law or divinity, he was peculiarly fitted for teaching. Says President Woods: "His mind was practical and even realistic in its turn, rather than speculative; clear in perception rather than profound in insight; strong in its grasp of great principles, rather than acute and discriminating in analysis; better skilled in the orderly arrangement of facts, and the plain statement of laws, than in the deeper intuitions or higher generalizations of science—a constitution of mind better adapted to the teaching than to the discovery of truth, and to the teaching of the physical, than of the metaphysical sciences." To these qualifications he added conscientiousness, a thorough preparation for his work, an enthusiasm and a kindness of heart despite a natural reserve and a forbidding exterior, that won the strong affection of his pupils.

But though Professor Cleaveland may now be chiefly remembered as a teacher, he once had an international reputation as a writer on science. "In 1816 he published in Boston an elementary treatise on "Mineralogy and Geology" (2d ed. 1822; 3d ed. 1856), based on the system of Brognart and Huay." At the time of the publication of the work, an interest in mineralogy was manifesting itself in America, but there were no means of properly gratifying it.

The works of the great German and French mineralogists had not yet been translated; and if they had been, could not have supplied the infor-

mation which was wanted respecting our widespread and newly opened American localities. It was the good fortune of Professor Cleaveland to furnish this needed work exactly at the right juncture of circumstances. A few years earlier or later it might have met a less flattering reception. Appearing when it did and being such as it was, it was a perfect success, and placed the author at once in the front ranks of living mineralogists. It not only placed the labors of the great European mineralogists before the American public in an accessible and attractive form, but by adding new species and new localities, acquired an American character and did something to pay the debt of science which America was then owing to Europe.*

Professor Cleaveland was a man of method and habit, always doing the same things in the same way, and at the same time. His extreme conservatism was manifested in his opposition to the new geological theories, an opposition that was increased by their contradiction of the "Mosaic" account of creation as then usually understood. Professor Cleaveland also had many of the eccentricities of the scholar and recluse. One of his chief peculiarities was an extraordinary timidity. He would not travel by steamer or rail, or even, for a considerable part of his life, by stage coach. The last time he went to Boston he proceeded in his own chaise and made a very considerable detour to avoid certain long bridges. Many stories are told of his precautions against lightning. He likewise had a great dread of poodle dogs. It is said that on one occasion when walking with two ladies on the streets of Brunswick he saw one approach, and straightway he beat a hasty retreat, leaving his fair companions to the mercy of the poodle.

But while his peculiarities raised many a smile, they did not diminish the esteem and affection of his friends and students. When Longfellow revisited Brunswick fifty years after his graduation, he wrote the following sonnet to the memory of his old teacher:

Among the many lives that I have known,
None I remember more serene and sweet,
More rounded in itself and more complete,
Than his who lies beneath this funeral stone.
These pines that murmur in low monotone,
These walks frequented by scholastic feet,
Were all his world; but in this calm retreat
For him the teacher's chair became a throne.
With fond affection memory loves to dwell
On the old days when his example made
A pastime of the toil of tongue and pen;
And now, amid the groves he loved so well
That naught could lure him from their grateful shade,
He sleeps, but wakes elsewhere, for God hath said, Amen!

[L. C. H.]

JOSEPH CUMMINGS, fifth president of Wesleyan University (1857-75), was born in Falmouth, Maine, March 3, 1817. He was graduated at Wesleyan University with the highest honors in 1840, began teaching in

*Woods, "Eulogy on Professor Cleaveland," in Coll. Maine Historical Society, Series I, Vol. VI., 408, 409.

the seminary at Amenia, New York, where he became principal in 1843, and joined the New England conference of the Methodist Episcopal church and was ordained to preach in 1846. For the next seven years he filled pastorates in Malden, Chelsea, and Boston, Massachusetts, and was president of Genesee College, Lima, New York (1854-57).

In 1857 he was chosen president of Wesleyan University, the first alumnus to fill the office, and entered upon his highly successful administration of eighteen years. During his incumbency the buildings of the university were increased by several generous donations by alumni and others. By the munificence of Isaac Rich, Rich Hall, library building, was opened in 1868, the alumni subscribing \$27,500 as a library fund. At the commencement of 1871, was opened the Orange Judd Hall of Natural Science, erected at the cost of \$100,000 by Orange Judd, an alumnus of the class of 1847. Memorial Chapel was dedicated the same day. In 1871, it was decided that women should be admitted to equal standing with men students. Four women were graduated in 1876, and since then there have been a few in every class. Wesleyan's move in the direction of co-education was a radical one at the time, she being one of the first of New England colleges to adopt the practice.

President Cummings possessed eminent ability as an educator, and his devotion to the interests of the institution was tireless. After resigning the presidency in 1875, he continued for two years in the chair of mental philosophy and political economy. He resumed pastoral duties in 1877, holding successive charges at Malden and Cambridge, Massachusetts, until 1881, when he accepted the John Evans professorship of moral and intellectual philosophy at Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois, with the presidency of the institution. Equally prominent in educational and ecclesiastical affairs, he was a delegate to the Methodist Episcopal general conference in 1864, 1876, 1880, and 1884. The degree of S.T.D. was conferred on him by Wesleyan in 1854, and by Harvard in 1861, and that of LL.D. by Northwestern University in 1866. Dr. Cummings published an edition of Butler's "Analogy of Religion" (1875), and besides numerous sermons and addresses, "Life of the Late Daniel Stillman Newcomb" (1855), and "An Elective Presiding Eldership in the Methodist Episcopal Church" (1877). He died suddenly, of heart-failure, in Evanston, Illinois, March 7, 1890.

DOROTHEA LYNDE DIX was born in Hampden, Maine, April 4, 1802. She seems to have inherited some of her most characteristic qualities from her grandfather, Dr. Elijah Dix, of Massachusetts. Dr. Dix was a man of public spirit, of great force and independence of character, and one inclined to try new paths. Late in life he purchased large quantities of land in Maine, including the territory on which are built the present towns of Dixmont and Dixfield. Dr. Dix died while visiting this estate, and was buried in Dixmont Center. He probably at one time employed his son

Joseph as agent for his lands, and it was while Joseph and his wife were living in the neighboring town of Hampden that Dorothea (baptized Dorothy) was born. Her father was a wandering, shiftless person, a religious monomaniac. The little Dorothy was set to folding and pasting the numerous pamphlets her father wrote, till at the age of twelve, exhausted and desolate, she fled from Worcester, where the family was then living, to her grandmother at Boston. Madam Dix was a thoroughly conscientious, unimaginative woman, and she provided for the physical needs of little Dorothy, held her steadily to work, impressed on her the duty of thoroughness, and never was guilty of anything resembling softness or sympathy. In later years Miss Dix would exclaim bitterly, "I never knew childhood." At fourteen she began to teach and continued in this occupation with various intermissions until 1836. During the last five years of this period she was the head of a select private school of her own in the Dix "Mansion." In 1836, having acquired a modest competence and almost killed herself by overwork, she gave up teaching, went to England, and was there compelled by a physical breakdown to take a rest of a year and a half. Unable to resume teaching, the next three years of her life were unoccupied and disappointing to her. On March 28, 1841, chance directed her attention to the miserable condition of the insane inmates of the house of correction at East Cambridge. Moved with anger and pity, she set to work to bring about a change of treatment and in spite of obstacles succeeded. She had now found her life work. For years she investigated the treatment of the insane in the various States, appealed for reform to legislators and men of influence, caused new hospitals to be built and old ones enlarged, and the unhappy lunatics to be treated like men and not beasts. She spent some years attempting to induce Congress to grant to the several States a great quantity of public land, the proceeds to be used for the benefit of the insane, but when at last the bill had passed both houses it was vetoed by President Pierce on the ground that it was unconstitutional.

Miss Dix now went to Europe for a rest, but was soon again at her chosen task. She gave a much needed impulse to the reform of the treatment of the insane in Scotland, visited the Channel Islands for the same purpose, and then traveled over the continent studying conditions and urging reforms. After returning to America she supervised and assisted in the management of hospitals for the insane until the outbreak of the Civil War. She immediately offered her services to the government, and was appointed superintendent of female nurses, with extensive powers. In this office she did much good, but she had been accustomed to work alone and to demand the best, and she could not easily accommodate herself to conditions where much must be left to subordinates and where so many assistants must be used, that it was totally impracticable to require that all should possess the highest qualifications. After the war she continued to work for the insane and for others in distress until 1881, when her

strength and health entirely gave way and for the rest of her life she remained the honored guest of the Trenton Insane Asylum (one of the earliest if not absolutely the earliest) which she had caused to be built and which she termed her first born child. The last period of her life was one of close confinement, increasing debility and often of intense pain, but she rejoiced that her reason was left to her and she continued to aid and plan for others until the last. Nearly fifty years before she had written: "No day, no hour, comes but brings in its train work to be performed for some useful end—the suffering to be comforted, the wandering led home, the sinner reclaimed. Oh, how can any fold the hands to rest and say to the spirit, Take thine ease for all is well!" and a few months before her death, to a friend who had expressed the hope that she would live for many years, Miss Dix said, with wild excitement, "My dear friend, if you hope that, pray for it; Pray that I may be here. I think that even lying on my bed, I can still do something."²⁸ Miss Dix died on July 17, 1887.

[L. C. H.]

LILLIAN (NORTON) DOME, Opera Singer, better known as Mme. Nordica, was born in Farmington, Franklin county, Maine, Dec. 12, 1859, daughter of Edwin and Amanda (Allen) Norton. When she was five years of age her parents removed to Boston, and when she was fifteen she entered the New England Conservatory of Music to study voice culture. She developed a soprano voice of great purity, and at the age of eighteen was graduated with high honors. Meanwhile she had sung in choirs and concerts.

On leaving the Conservatory she sang with the Handel and Haydn Society, taking the leading part in the "Messiah" and other oratorios. The singer Tietjens, hearing Miss Norton, introduced her to Madame Maretzek, under whom she studied some months. In 1878 she went to Europe with Gilmore's Band, and while there sang at the Crystal Palace, and at the Trocadero in Paris. She confined herself to classical music, and her success in it was so flattering that she decided to remain in Europe and to attempt an operatic career. Accordingly, she settled in Milan, and in six months time mastered ten operas. She made her debut at Brescia in "La Traviata;" her stage name, Giglia Nordica, being her own Italianized. In October, 1880, she sang the part of Marguerite in fifteen performances of "Faust," and next appeared at Novara as Alice in "Roberto." At Aquila, Italy, she appeared in thirty-five performances, the operas being "Faust," "Rigoletto," and "Lucia." At St. Petersburg she achieved her first marked triumph as Filina in "Mignon," meeting with great favor also in other parts. In 1881 she went to Paris and sang before Ambrose Thomas and the impresario, Vancorbeil, who engaged her for the Grand Opera House. After a tour in Italy, she made her debut in Paris in 1882, appearing as Marguerite in "Faust," and her triumph was complete. Her American

²⁸Tiffany, "Life of Dorothea Lynde Dix."

accent was remarked upon, but was conceded to give a piquancy to her tone, and her acting was considered to be equal to her singing. At the close of this engagement she was secured by Col. Mapleson, under whose management she made a tour of the United States and appeared at the Academy of Music, New York City. In 1887 she met with great favor in Berlin, and shortly after sang in Drury Lane Theatre, London. She became a great favorite with the public; sang at a state concert at Buckingham Palace, receiving the personal thanks of the Prince and Princess of Wales, and was commanded by the queen to sing in Westminster Abbey, the selection being "Let the Bright Seraphim." Nordica gradually took up Wagnerian roles, and in 1894 appeared at Bayreuth, singing the part of Elsa in "Lohengrin." She visited the United States several times as a member of the Abbey, Schoeffel & Grau Company, her name appearing with those of Calve, Melba, Eames, Plancon. and the Reszkes. In 1897 Mme. Nordica left the company and made a concert tour through the United States. She soon returned to the opera stage, however; she had about forty operas in her repertoire. She received decorations from H. R. H. the Duke of Edinburgh and H. R. H. the Duke of Saxe Coburg and Gotha; also the title of royal chamber singer; while the Queen of England presented her with a brooch composed of pearls, emeralds and diamonds. In 1896 she was presented by the stockholders of the Metropolitan Opera House with a magnificent diamond tiara.

She was married in London, in 1883, to Frederick A. Gower, of the Gower-Bell Telephone Co., a native of Maine. In 1884 Mr. Gower made a balloon ascension from Cherbourg, France, intending to cross the English channel. The balloon was found but the aeronaut was never seen again. In 1896 she became the wife of a Hungarian officer, Zoltan Dome, the wedding taking place in Indianapolis, where she was singing.

On the eightieth anniversary of Queen Victoria, Mme. Nordica sang before her in the first Wagnerian opera ever heard by the Queen.

Madame Nordica was married a third time, on July 29, 1909, to George W. Young. She died on May 10, 1914.

LUTHER ORLANDO EMERSON, Musician and Composer, was born at Parsonsfield, Maine, August 3, 1820, son of Luther and Elizabeth Usher (Parsons) Emerson. He devoted his life to music, beginning in Salem, Massachusetts, under the instruction of Isaac B. Woodbury. The appreciation of his compositions by the choir and congregation he was serving encouraged him to publish a book of church music but in spite of its musical worth it did not sell. After residing eight years in Salem, he went to Boston as organist and musical director at the Bullfinch Street Church, where he remained four years. In 1857 he formed a connection with Oliver Ditson & Co., who thenceforth published all his compositions, with one exception, beginning with "The Golden Wreath," of which 40,000 copies were sold the first year. About this time he was called to take charge

of the music in the Second Congregational Church in Greenfield, Massachusetts, as well as of the musical department of Power's Institute at Bernardston, Massachusetts. While at Greenfield he published "Sabbath Harmony," which gave him increased reputation. His "Harp of Judah" was issued in 1863, and became very popular, 30,000 copies being sold in the first three months. He also took an active part in musical festivals, having conducted over 350 throughout the United States and Canada. His first great triumph as a conductor was at the convention held at Keene, New Hampshire, in 1862. For several years he was the associate of Carl Zerrahn in conducting the great Worcester musical festivals. He was the author of music for the war song, "We Are Coming Father Abraham," to words by William Cullen Bryant. His published works number over seventy, including collections for choirs, singing classes, public schools, and instruction books for the voice, piano, and organ, besides chorus-books, glee-books, masses, etc.

He was married March 4, 1847, to Mary Jane, daughter of John Goye, of Boston. The degree of Mus. Doc. was conferred upon him by Findlay (O.) College, in 1895. Mr. Emerson died on September 29, 1915.

CHARLES CARROLL EVERETT, Author and Teacher, was born in Brunswick, Maine, on June 19, 1829. He came of the well-known Everett family, of Massachusetts, Edward Everett being an own cousin of his father, Ebenezer Everett. His mother, a woman of unusual attainments, founded in 1810, in conjunction with another lady, what is said to have been the first Sunday school in New England. Ebenezer Everett moved to Maine, where he won reputation as a lawyer and with ex-Chief Justice Mellen and ex-Governor Smith prepared the first revision of the Maine statutes.

Charles Carroll Everett graduated from Bowdoin in 1850 in the same class with William P. Frye and O. O. Howard. After graduation he studied medicine, studied for a year in Germany, taught for four years at Bowdoin and studied for a year at the Harvard Divinity School, graduating in 1859. From 1859 to 1869 he was pastor of the Unitarian church at Bangor, Maine. In 1869 he published his first book, "The Science of Thought" (second edition, 1890), "an altogether fresh discussion of the principles of human knowledge." "Through this book, as well as through the admiration he had won as preacher, teacher and man of sense, Dr. Everett attracted the attention of the Harvard Corporation." He was appointed Bussey Professor of Theology at the Divinity School, and in 1878 was made dean of the faculty. Both these positions he held until his death on October 16, 1900.

Professor Everett was a man of broad mind and of varied interests, but throughout these thirty years the school remained the chief object of his affection and care. Professor Emerton said of him in a memorial notice written for the "Harvard Graduate Magazine" for December, 1900:

"As Dean he faced every problem of a difficult administration with a perfect comprehension and an absolute openness of mind. He found the school with but three professors; he leaves it with nine, a double service in every department but his own. He found it isolated from the life of the University, suffering from ill-informed criticism, with an inadequate material equipment and an imperfectly adjusted course of study. He leaves it contributing vitally to the University, safe in the reputation of its teaching body, adequately housed, and able to say now these many years, that it shows no favor to incompetence or doubtful character. In every movement looking toward these ends he heartily sympathized and gave his unstinted help."

The school was also greatly indebted to him for his work as professor of theology. Professor Emerton says of his courses that undoubtedly they "were the strength of the Divinity School, as long as they and he lasted. Whatever a student might neglect under the temptations of the elective system, these he must have, and there was never but one opinion of them. To hundreds of eager minds they opened up ways hitherto undreamed of into the puzzling world of religious thought."

Professor Everett had no sympathy with the disregard often shown for theology, and perhaps nowhere more frequently than in his own denomination. "While," he said, "religion is the concern of the heart, it must rest on convictions of truth, and these must admit of scientific statement, there must be a science of religion and this is theology." Professor Everett was accustomed to give three courses dealing with the psychological foundations of (1) religious faith in general, (2) of Christianity, (3) of certain East Asiatic religions. In the latter subject he was a pioneer for when he began his teaching only a few scholars had seen the importance of a careful and sympathetic study of the great non-Biblical faiths. Professor Everett based his theology and his philosophy on certain fundamental truths intuitively known, and which he terms principles of reason. The chief of these are truth, goodness and beauty. "He felt that man and nature are supernatural, and that, after scientific reasoning has exhausted itself, there remains something which can be conceived of only as a breath of the Absolute. The conception of goodness he held to be as real a fact as the external universe, and he could think of neither the one nor the other except as an expression of an infinite Life." For our idea of the world he said we must go not to its lowest elements but to its highest. In his Lectures he gives sympathetic study to the theories of Darwin and Spencer, but "he finds intellectual satisfaction only in the acceptance of certain conceptions of consciousness which he takes as stubborn facts to be dealt with seriously, and not to be explained away by any process. He is not particularly concerned as a religious man, with a question whether or not man has come from a simian ancestor or a jelly-fish or a grain of sand, though on the scientific side he recognizes this origin as possible and interesting." Professor Emerton says of Dean

Everett: "Beyond his activities as teacher and administrative officer he has left a valuable legacy in his writings. He was not a voluminous, or, in the ordinary sense a ready writer. He generally needed some impulse from the outside to crystallize for him the thoughts that were in his mind. His method was to carry his idea about with him for a long time, sometimes to talk it out with some friend, and then, when he was ready, to put it on paper complete and usually with little change. One piece of work done, his mind went on at once to new problems. As a writer Dr. Everett was master of a clear and beautifully simple style. His most characteristic work is the 'Poetry, Comedy and Duty,' in which the philosophic bases of the aesthetic, the comic, and the ethical are each charmingly analyzed, and all are finally shown in their relation to each other." Dean Everett's personal character was of the highest. Professor Emerton says:

To name his quality would be to define the perfume of a flower. He moved among us frail, delicate, feeble of sight and hearing, shy, reticent, never putting himself forward into a place which he thought another could fill, yet with such reserves of courage, of strength, of eloquent speech, of fervid enthusiasm, that no person and no righteous cause ever appealed to him in vain for counsel or help. His thoughts upon the deep things of life he kept to himself until they were called out by some impulse of sympathy or duty.

His real seriousness was often masked by his habitual humor that never had a sting in it. To be told of a fault by him was to ensure its amendment. He rarely sought companionship, but welcomed it warmly when it was offered, and there was no better companion than he. He enjoyed keenly every enjoyable thing—music, the theater, novels, travel, poetry, paintings, conversation, a rubber of whist, a good dinner, every charm of nature. He could go from one enjoyment to another, or with equal content, he could turn from them all to the regular routine of academic duty and be happy still. Perhaps his greatest delight was in the ever-changing monotone of an ocean voyage. He loved mountain climbing and could outwalk many a younger pedestrian. The dominant impression gained from him was that of abundant life, the life that cannot end.

Besides the works already mentioned, Dr. Everett's principal books are: "Fichte's Science of Knowledge," "Ethics for Young People," "The Gospel of Paul," "Immortality and Other Essays," "The Christian Faith," "Psychological Elements of Religious Faith." He also wrote many magazine articles, including a thoughtful and interesting one on the Devil.

Dr. Everett's chief monuments are his lectures and his writings, but a tablet has been placed to his memory on the walls of the chapel of the Divinity School bearing an inscription which declares that he showed by life and doctrine the unity of the Spirit in Truth, Goodness and Beauty. Another more useful and therefore perhaps more appropriate memorial is the Charles Carroll Everett Scholarship founded by his daughter for the benefit of "that member of the graduating class of Bowdoin College whom the President and Trustees shall deem the best qualified to take a post-graduate course in either this or some other country." [L. C. H.]

SIMON GREENLEAF, Jurist, was born at Newburyport, Massachusetts, on December 5, 1783. After graduating from the Latin School he followed his father, who had removed to Maine. "He was admitted to the bar of Cumberland in 1806, and commenced practice in Standish, but the next year he moved to Gray. Being the first and the only lawyer in the place, he soon acquired a very considerable practice, which he retained and enlarged by his fidelity and skill. As his family increased he desired to extend the range of his business and increase its emoluments, and in 1818 he removed to Portland. * * * Mr. Greenleaf was not disappointed; his business and his fame increased, and the larger and more cultivated society, and its superior advantages in other respects, stimulated his susceptible powers to higher efforts. He now took rank among the foremost men at the bar, and by his winning manners, and his persuasive style of speaking and address, accompanied by the skill and ingenuity of his arguments established his reputation and his practice on a firm basis."

In 1820 Mr. Greenleaf was appointed Reporter of Decisions for the Supreme Court of Maine, and served for twelve years. "The cases determined during this period are contained in nine volumes, the last embracing a table of cases, and a digest of the whole. The reports are distinguished for the clear and concise manner in which the points of law are stated, and the arguments of counsel given: they took high rank in this class of legal productions, and were received as standards of authority throughout the Union. They were deservedly considered among the most valuable of American reports, and so highly were they esteemed that a new edition was demanded by the profession—a very rare thing in this class of work—which was published with annotations by Mr. Abbott of Cambridge, a short time previous to Mr. Greenleaf's death." In 1821 he prepared and published "A Collection of Cases, Overruled, Doubted, or Limited in Their Application, Taken from American and English Reports." Mr. Greenleaf had suffered the mortification of basing a case on a decision and being stopped in his argument by the court with the statement that this case had been overruled, and could not be a precedent. "He determined at once to ascertain, as far as he could, which of the apparently authoritative cases in the reports had lost their force, and to give the information to the profession." In 1833 Mr. Greenleaf, on the urgent solicitation of Judge Story, left Maine to become Professor at the Harvard Law School. When holding court at Portland, Judge Story had been much impressed by Mr. Greenleaf's handling of a case in admiralty, a subject then little known in America but which Judge Story believed to be of great and growing importance, and which he desired to receive careful attention at the Harvard Law School. Accordingly he determined if possible to secure Mr. Greenleaf's services.

Mr. Greenleaf remained as professor for fifteen years and was then obliged to retire because of failing health. He was highly regarded as a teacher, and worked hand in hand with Judge Story for the building up

of the school. But he by no means limited himself to the discharge of his duties as professor. Besides minor articles, he prepared a three-volume edition of "Cruise's Digest of the Law of Real Property," and published an original three-volume work on "The Law of Evidence." Professor Parsons of the Law School said of this book: "He certainly intended it, at first, mainly as a manual for students. But the profession took it up; and, as repeated editions were demanded, it grew upon his hands; and has grown equally in public favor, until it has overcome all competition, and become the book which every student and every practicing lawyer must have."

Judge Hoar said of Mr. Greenleaf: "Among those eminent lawyers who have never held judicial station, the name and opinions of Mr. Greenleaf stand highest as authority, in all matters of law." Mr. Greenleaf was a very religious man, and among his writings are "Testamentary Counsels and Hints to Christians on the Right Distribution of Their Property by Will, by a Retired Solicitor"; "An Examination of the Testimony of the Four Evangelists by the Rules of Evidence Administered in Courts of Justice, with an Account of the Trial of Jesus, and a Letter to a Lawyer, by a Member of the Legal Profession." The "Examination" was republished in London, and the "Letter" was published by the American Tract Society.

In person Mr. Greenleaf was tall, rather stout and inclined to stoop. He was a grave man, very quiet in his movements but affable and courteous, and with a "countenance expressive of benignity and intelligence." "He gave no margin of his life to recreation, except from one field of mental activity to another; the consequence was that he fell exhausted by life's toil; he was cut down suddenly, with his harness all on, in the midst of his labors. He died on the 6th of October, 1853, at the age of seventy, in the full maturity of his powers, and the meridian of his fame."^a [L. C. H.]

CYRUS HAMLIN, first president of Robert College, Constantinople, 1860-71, was born at Waterford, Maine, January 5, 1811, the son of Hannibal and Susan (Faulkner) Hamlin. His maternal grandfather, Francis Faulkner, of Acton, Massachusetts, was colonel of the Middlesex regiment of minute-men at the battle of Lexington. His paternal grandfather, Captain Eleazer Hamlin, was a soldier of the Revolution; thus, by right of both his parents, he belonged to the Sons of the American Revolution. His father removed from Harvard, Massachusetts, in 1798, to Waterford, Maine, and there died in 1811, when Cyrus was eight months old, leaving his widow, four children, two sons and two daughters. Two farms, well supplied with what then constituted good farming tools, were the resources for the support and education of the family. Young Cyrus and his brother Hannibal, nearly two years older, were consequently innured to labor from childhood up. A most interesting account of their early experience is given in his "My Life and Times."

^aWillis, "Law, Courts and Lawyers of Maine," pp. 522-536.

He left the farm at the age of sixteen, and entered the jewelry store of Charles Farley, his brother-in-law, in Portland, Maine; became a skilled workman, and had bright prospects of success; but under the influence and preaching of the celebrated Edward Payson the purposes of his life were changed and in 1829 he entered Bridgton Academy, under Rev. Charles Soule. In September, 1830, he entered Bowdoin College, where he was distinguished for high scholarship and his fierce resistance to hazing. He was graduated in 1834, and at Bangor Theological Seminary in 1837, and was appointed by the faculty of Bowdoin to give the master of arts oration, 1837. In 1838 he was married to Henrietta Jackson, of Dorset, Vermont, and they departed for Turkey, under the auspices of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions. Mr. Hamlin's first work was to establish a seminary or high school for the education of young men to be teachers, translators and other helpers in the general work of enlightenment. Such an institution had been established by Dr. Dwight, under the care of a Dr. Pascati, in 1834, and had been broken up by persecution, but was successfully re-established at Rebek, on the Bosphorus, in 1840, where it continued for twenty years. The boycotting of all Armenians known as Protestants led Mr. Hamlin to use his position and privileges as a foreigner to establish various industries under his protection, and a small steam flouring mill and bakery were put in operation a year before the Crimean War. The British Hospital and Camp at Scutari wanted the bread, which was better than any to be had in Constantinople, and from 15,000 to 18,000 pounds were furnished daily by Mr. Hamlin. A conspiracy to upset the contract was quashed by Lord Stratford De Redcliffe.

At the close of the war the \$25,000 profits were devoted to church and school buildings, and later a house built from the structure of the mill and bakery, was devoted to the work of the American Board. In 1860, Mr. Hamlin, differing from Secretary Anderson on the new scheme which excluded foreign languages, severed his relations with the American Board, and became the organizer of Robert College, near his old home, and its first president. The college met with opposition from the Jesuits, who had been unable to obtain similar concessions, and from the French and Russian embassies. A site had been purchased on condition of payment when the government should give permission to build. That permission was given, the money paid over, then the permission was withdrawn. It required a seven years' contest to overcome the opposition, but the permit was finally given, and the college was placed under the protection of the United States flag. As the sultan's own signature was attached to the document, diplomatic opposition was silenced, and the college was erected of very solid masonry on the most conspicuous site on the Bosphorus. The buildings of the Bebek Seminary, which had been under his care for twenty years, were empty, the school having been removed to Marsovan, and during these seven years Robert College was provisionally established in those buildings. In these somewhat narrow premises Robert College had

an admirable preparation for entering upon the larger inheritance which the imperial grant conferred upon it. In recognition of his eminent services, Bowdoin College conferred the degree of D.D., as did also Harvard and the University of the City of New York. Bowdoin also gave him the degree of LL.D. "The Trustees of Robert College, of Constantinople" were incorporated in the State of New York in 1864, and the college was included with other State institutions in the University of New York. On July 4, 1869, the cornerstone of the first building was laid by the American Minister on the heights of Roumeli Hissar, the most beautiful site on the shores of the Bosphorus, was completed in 1871, and has been named Hamlin Hall. Since the death of its chief benefactor, Mr. Robert, other buildings, including residences for the instructors, have been erected with funds raised in America. In equipment and curriculum the institution is on a par with the best American colleges.

Returning to the United States in 1873, Dr. Hamlin in 1877 accepted the chair of dogmatic theology in Bangor Seminary. In 1880 he was elected president of Middlebury College, Vermont, and held the office for five years, when he retired to Lexington, Massachusetts. His writings, which are mostly in Armenian, include a translation of Upham's "Mental Philosophy"; "Papists and Protestants" (1847); "Arithmetic for Armenians" (1845; Turkish translation, 1870), and a critique on the writings of Archbishop Matteos (1863). His works in English include a pamphlet, "Cholera and Its Treatment" (1865), which was frequently reprinted; "Among the Turks" (1877), and numerous articles in reviews on free trade and protection, in which the doctrine of free trade is bitterly opposed; also various articles on international relations. Dr. Hamlin had four sons and nine daughters. Eight children survived him. His son, Alfred D. F., was professor of architecture in Columbia University; his son, Christopher R., was a pastor of the Congregational Church at Canton Center, Connecticut. Dr. Hamlin died suddenly at Portland, Maine, August 8, 1900.

NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE was born in Salem, Massachusetts, July 4, 1804, and he died in Plymouth, New Hampshire, May 18, 1864. The name was spelled Hathorne until the author inserted a "w." He was a son of Nathaniel Hathorne, the captain of a trading vessel, and his mother was Elizabeth Clark Manning. His ancestry is traced from the William Hawthorne, who at the age of twenty-three came to New England in 1630 from Wiltshire, England, settled first at Dorchester, Massachusetts, later he was induced to remove to Salem by the offer of large grants of land, the ground being taken that such a citizen was a "public benefit." He was of the "Separatists," and was a man of great force of character, a dominating personality, and an exemplar of the virtues revered by the community. It is no fancy when we can trace from him the sombre, thoughtful, brooding and austere genius of Nathaniel Hawthorne.

The childhood of Nathaniel was such as to emphasize the gloomy [and brooding] traits of his inheritance. After the death of her husband, his widowed mother immured herself and her children in the wooden house near the wharves in which Nathaniel had been born. About the region lingered old stories of the India trade of which Salem had once been a port. They profoundly impressed the imaginative boy, and his reading and habits of solitude all combined to give his mind that tendency towards the unreal world and that fantastic aloofness which mark his writings. He had for schoolmaster Dr. Joseph C. Worcester, the lexicographer, but having been injured severely in a football game he was obliged to leave school and was for two years confined to the house. During this period he saturated his mind with the English classics, poring over the "Faery Queene," "Pilgrim's Progress," "Froissart's Chronicles," and "Clarendon's History." When he was fourteen his mother removed to Raymond, on Sebago Lake, in Maine, and in that wild country the boy had long wanderings of spirit in the fairyland of books, varied by his rambles in the wilderness. In 1819 he was back in Salem preparing for college, having decided that he would be an author. In 1821, he entered Bowdoin College, where among his classmates were Henry W. Longfellow, John S. C. Abbott and George B. Cheever. Franklin Pierce, afterwards President of the United States, was in the class before him. In college he was distinguished only for the excellence of his themes and translations. He graduated in 1825, and returned to Salem, where he secluded himself reading and writing by day, and seldom going out except for long walks in the twilight. For twelve years this was his life. In 1826 he published at his own expense a novel called "Fanshawe," a college story with its scene at Bowdoin, though under another name. Although its failure troubled him, he was not disheartened, and somewhat later he completed, and with some difficulty published a series of "Seven Tales of My Native Land." In both these and in "Fanshawe" his characteristic power and admirable literary style were already to be seen. Varied with a few brief excursions to other parts of New England, he kept to his literary work, contenting himself in sending short stories and sketches and essays to the Salem "Gazette" and the "New England Magazine." Several of the "Twice-told Tales" appeared in 1831. Among the few who perceived that he was a genius of the first rank, were the three Peabody sisters, neighbors in Salem, who learned with pleasure that the young writer was the son of the widowed Mrs. Hathorne. An acquaintance followed and later the second sister, Sophie, a woman of rare personal and literary gifts, became the author's wife.

With the year 1836 Nathaniel Hawthorne began to gain a surer footing. He was engaged by Mr. Goodrich ("Peter Parley") to do editorial work on "The American Magazine of Useful and Entertaining Knowledge," and also to compile a "Universal History" which was later to be made use of in the famous works of Peter Parley. His work was

poorly compensated. and it was his friend Bridge who assumed the pecuniary risk in the "Twice-told Tales." A copy of this latter work was sent to Prof. Longfellow, who wrote a very favorable notice in the "North American Review" of which he was at that time editor. This was the beginning of a warm friendship between the two men which lasted all through their lives. It may be added that it was Hawthorne who suggested to Longfellow the theme of "Evangeline," and his acknowledgment of this was always cordial and generous.

He was looking forward to marriage with the charming and gifted Sophia Amelia Peabody, and it became necessary to find some employment whose returns were more sure than that of literature. Martin Van Buren was the President, and George Bancroft was the Collector of the Port in Boston, and the political affiliations of the young writer had been with the Democratic party. The post of weigher and gauger was found for him in the Salem Custom House, with a salary of \$1,200 a year. He held this position for two years, and was then turned out of office by the new Whig administration of President Harrison. In 1841 he united with a group of Boston scholars and transcendentalists, men and women, to establish "Brook Farm." In this communistic experiment Hawthorne did his full share, working each day for sixteen hours. Of this experiment he said: "I went to live in Arcady, and found myself up to the chin in a barn-yard." He extricated himself with the loss of \$1,000, which represented his savings at the Custom House; but he had gained an experience which later made the background for his "Blithedale Romance," written about ten years afterwards.

After his marriage in 1842, he settled in Concord, Massachusetts, and from that time his life was devoted to literature and travel. The house in which he and his wife lived was the old parsonage in which William Emerson, grandfather of Ralph Waldo Emerson, had resided, and from the study windows of which he had watched the Lexington fight. The stories which he wrote at this time were sent to the periodicals of the day, and were republished in 1846 under the name of "Mosses from an Old Manse."

In 1846 he received from President Polk appointment as Surveyor of Customs at Salem, and in his introduction to the "Scarlet Letter" he tells the story of his life there until 1849. It was while he was at Salem that he wrote that romance, which finally appeared in 1850. This book at once created a profound impression, although the publishers who brought it out had so little prevision of its popularity that after the 5,000 copies called for had been printed, the type was distributed. The enthusiasm which it aroused was as great in England as in this country, and it was at once seen that here was one of the great writers of the English-speaking race. Ousted just before the appearance of the novel from his Salem post for political reasons, the next three years were years of great literary activity. During this time he produced five books, four of which have been pronounced "Masterpieces in their Several Ways"—"The House of

the Seven Gables," "The Wonder Book," (for children), "The Snow Image, and Other Twice-told Tales," and "The Blithedale Romance."

After a short stay at West Newton, Massachusetts, where he finished the last named book, he removed to Concord, Massachusetts, in 1852, buying Mr. Bronson Alcott's house and about twenty acres of land, and naming the place "The Wayside." Here in 1852 he wrote the campaign life of his friend, Franklin Pierce, and in 1853, "Tanglewood Tales." In 1853, upon the inauguration of Mr. Pierce as President of the United States, Hawthorne was appointed Consul at Liverpool, an office considered the most lucrative in the gift of the government. Here the family lived for four years, and Hawthorne discharged his duties with credit. His book, "Our Old Home," written in 1860, at Concord, describes the experiences of that time. During this period he did some traveling in England, and, after his voluntary retirement from the consulate, further wanderings in the different countries of the continent, the later journeys furnishing material for his "French and Italian Notebooks." During his stay in Rome "The Marble Faun," the longest and most elaborate of his tales, took shape, and in 1860 it was published simultaneously in Boston and London, appearing in England under the title of "Transformation."

In the agitations before and during the Civil War, Hawthorne took little part in public affairs. While in sympathy with the government, he despaired of the restoration of the Union, and held himself aloof from the contentions of the time. His last four years until May 18, 1864, when he died, were spent quietly at home in Concord. "Dr. Grimshawe's Secret," "The Dolliver Romance" and "Septimus Felton" were all produced at this time. "Our Old Home," the record of his travels and observations in England, came out at this period as monthly papers in a magazine. When they were published as a book, he dedicated it to his old friend, Franklin Pierce, at that time a highly unpopular figure in the North. His publishers objected to this on the ground of expediency, but he insisted on it as a piece of loyalty to his friend, and his firm belief and manly attitude was justified in the cordial reception accorded to the book.

In 1863, his health beginning to fail, he undertook a trip to the South with his friend and publisher William D. Ticknor. In Philadelphia his curator suddenly died, and the shock was one from which Hawthorne never recovered. Not very many months afterwards he started out on another trip, this time to the White Mountains, in company with Franklin Pierce. In the hotel at Plymouth, New Hampshire, he quietly passed away in his sleep, his friend finding him in the same position in which he had laid down. The graves of Emerson and Thoreau lie near that of Hawthorne. No American man of letters has more enriched the heritage of the English tongue. His romances became classics before his death and will continue to be regarded as treasure-houses of beauty and wonder as long as English is spoken. His eldest daughter, Una, died unmarried. His surviving children were Julian, a well-known author; and Rose, the wife of George Parsons Lathrop.

ROSWELL DWIGHT HITCHCOCK, Clergyman and Educator, was born at East Machias, Maine, August 15, 1817, the second son of Roswell and Betsey (Longfellow) Hitchcock. His early education was obtained at Washington Academy in his native town, and he entered Amherst College as a sophomore in 1833, taking his degree in 1836. In 1839, after three years spent in teaching and in biblical study at Andover Theological Seminary, he was appointed tutor in Amherst College, where he remained three years, returning to his studies at Andover in 1842. In 1844 he took charge of a church in Waterville, Maine, and in 1845 was installed pastor of the First Congregational Church at Exeter, New Hampshire, where he continued for seven years with the exception of two years spent in theological study in Germany. In 1852 he accepted the chair of natural and revealed religion at Bowdoin College (Brunswick, Maine), which he held for three years. He was elected Washburn Professor of Church History in the Union Theological Seminary, New York, in 1855, and in 1880 president of that institution. The degree of D.D. was conferred upon him by Bowdoin College in 1855 and by the University of Edinburgh (Scotland) in 1885, and that of LL.D. by Williams College in 1873 and Harvard in 1886. He was an editor of the "American Theological Review" from 1863 to 1870; in 1869 he was elected a life trustee of Amherst College, and in 1871, after a years travel in Egypt and the Holy Land, president of the Palestine Exploration Society. His published works, besides numerous essays, sermons and addresses, were "Life of Edward Robinson" (1863), "Analysis of the Holy Bible" (1869), "Hymns and Songs of Praise" (1874) and "Socialism" (1879). A posthumous collection of his sermons, "Eternal Atonement," was published in 1888. He was a vigorous and incisive pulpit orator; preached extensively during his long professorship at Union Seminary, and in 1863 he supplied the pulpit in Plymouth Church during Mr. Beecher's absence in England to advocate the northern cause. He was throughout the war an ardent Union man, and made many patriotic addresses both on the platform and in the pulpit.

He married January 2, 1845, Elizabeth Anthony Brayton, third daughter of Israel Brayton, of Somerset, Massachusetts. Dr. Hitchcock died after a short illness at Somerset, Massachusetts, June 16, 1887.

BLANCHE WILLIS HOWARD, Author, was born in Bangor, Maine, on July 21, 1847. She was educated in the city schools, studied for a year in New York, and passed a year in Chicago with her sister. In 1875 she published her first book, "One Summer." Miss Howard determined to broaden her mind by travel, obtained employment with the "Boston Transcript" and sailed for Europe. She spent considerable time in Stuttgart, Germany, and finally decided to remain there permanently. "She received into her home young American girls who were studying music, art and languages, kept on with her literary work, and in 1886 became the editor of a magazine published in the English language." In 1890 she married a

doctor, Baron von Teuffel, the acting physician to the King of Wurtemberg. Her published works include: "One Summer"; "One Year Abroad"; "Aunt Serena"; "Guenn, a Wave of the Breton Coast"; "Aulnay Tower"; "Toney the Maid"; "The Open Door"; "No Heroes"; and in collaboration with W. Sharp, "A Fellowe and His Wife." Professor Pattee says of her in his "History of American Literature Since 1870": "Few American women have been more brilliant than Miss Howard. Her 'One Summer' has a sprightliness and humor about it that are perennial, and her Breton romance, 'Guenn,' is among the greatest romances of the period in either England or America. The spirit of true romance breathes from it, and it came alive from its creator's heart and life. So far does it surpass all her other work that she is rated more and more as a single-work artist." Baroness von Teuffel died on October 7, 1898. [L. C. H.]

WILLIAM DEWITT HYDE, Educator and Author, was born at Winchendon, Massachusetts, on September 23, 1858, fitted for college at Exeter Academy, and graduated from Harvard in 1879. He studied a year at Union Theological Seminary, for two years at Andover Seminary, and for one year at Andover and Harvard. His special master was Professor George H. Palmer, after whom he named his son, and whom he more than once called his spiritual father. After completing his theological education he served for two years as pastor of the Congregational church at Paterson, New Jersey, and in 1885 was called to the presidency of Bowdoin as he was just completing his twenty-seventh year. There his life work was done, he continuing in office until his death on June 29, 1917. Of the great work which he did, something has been said by his pupil and colleague, Professor Mitchell, in the chapter on Education. There is also an interesting analysis of his character and work by one of the Bowdoin trustees, Rev. Samuel V. Cole, who says in part:

Some one has wittily said that if you put a man in a large place one of two things will happen: either he will grow or he will swell. President Hyde grew. A man of courage and tireless energy he was never content with achievement. He followed a receding goal from horizon to horizon and at the same time developed all the prime qualities of leadership.

Every great and successful administrator is an idealist at heart. He hitches his wagon to a star. But do not misunderstand me. There are two types of idealists, as President Hyde himself has pointed out. There is the abstract idealist of whom Plato and Kant in philosophy, Matthew Arnold in poetry, Burne-Jones in painting, and William Lloyd Garrison in politics, are impressive examples. No one of these, however great in other directions, could have achieved greatness as a president of Bowdoin College. There is, on the other hand, the concrete or practical idealist represented by Aristotle, Robert Browning, Abraham Lincoln, and, over and above all that ever lived, by the Son of Man himself. President Hyde was a practical idealist. He was neither absorbed in nor detached from the things of every-day life. He wandered far in the realms of philosophy and poetry and religious thought, but he had also an abounding human interest and could transmute vision into service. It was a rare

union of the qualities of the man of vision and the man of action that enabled him to administer the affairs of the college and become a true leader of men.

On the completion of Dr. Hyde's twenty-fifth year as president of Bowdoin, one of the faculty addressed to him these lines:

Not that you found her brick and made her stone—
 Dear are the bricks from which her beauty rose;
 Not that her fame through yours more widely grows—
 Sufficient is her fame unto her own;
 Not that from words well said and wisely sown,
 Much ripened fruit these many years disclose
 And still from horn-of-plenty much outflows;
 Her debt to you is not for these alone.
 But for those deeper things that make the man,
 Courage that seeks not vain and human praise,
 Patience that passes idle carping by,
 And gift of self, that only gift that can
 To greatest height man's greatest talents raise
 And blend them in the realms beyond the sky."

—[L. C. H.]

EASTMAN JOHNSON, Artist, was born at Lovell, Maine, July 29, 1824, son of Philip C. and Mary (Chandler) Johnson. His youth was passed in Augusta, Maine, until his parents removed to Washington, D. C., in 1845.

In early years he was fond of drawing, mainly portraits and figures from life, although he never had any master. Many members of the State Legislature and others of note were among his patrons. He passed a winter in Portland, Maine, where he also made portraits, among others of the father, mother and sister of the poet, Longfellow. At Washington, during the sessions, he was permitted to occupy one of the Senate committee rooms as a studio, and there he continued to draw portraits in crayon. Among his sitters were Judges Story and McLean, of the Supreme Court; John Quincy Adams, Daniel Webster (an order from Robert C. Winthrop), some of the foreign ministers, also Mrs. Alexander Hamilton and Mrs. Dolly Madison. He then established himself in Boston, where Henry W. Longfellow gave him an order for portraits of himself, his wife and children, and afterwards of his friends, Charles Sumner, Ralph Waldo Emerson, President Felton of Harvard, and Nathaniel Hawthorne. He remained in Boston three years, and in the meantime had taken up painting in oils to some extent. He then sailed for Europe, and entered the Royal Academy at Dusseldorf, Prussia, where after working six months he was told he could make his graduating cartoon. After two years he removed to Holland and spent four years at the Hague; then established himself in Paris, from time to time sending work home to the United States. In 1856 he returned to this country, and from Washington went to Lake Superior, among the Indians, of whom he made studies. In 1858 he settled in New York, bringing with him the "Old Kentucky Home," now in the Lenox Library, New York, with other works of his, and after that devoted himself to genre pictures. Among his other large canvases are:

"The Old Stage Coach," "The Tramp," "Corn Husking at Nantucket," "Cranberry Harvest at Nantucket," "Two Men," "The Drummer Boy," "Twelfth Night," "The School of Philosophy at Nantucket," "The Prisoner of State," "Milton Dictating to His Daughters," "Sunday Morning," "Fiddling His Way," "The Pension Agent," "Heel Taps," "The Repri-mand," "Barn Swallows," "The Barefoot Boy," "The Peddler" and the "Contrabands." He has painted a large number of portraits, including two of Grover Cleveland, as Governor and President; also portraits of President Arthur, President Harrison, William M. Evarts, General Miles, Bishop Potter, Presidents Porter and Woolsey of Yale, President White of Cornell, President Barnard of Columbia, President McCosh of Princeton, and many portrait interiors.

Mr. Johnson was married, in 1869, to Elizabeth W., daughter of P. H. Buckley, of New York. He died in New York City, April 5, 1906.

HENRY JOHNSON, Educator and Author, was born at Gardiner, Maine, on June 25, 1855. He was educated at the local high school, at Phillips Andover and Bowdoin, graduating from the college in 1874. He studied in Europe for three years and was then appointed instructor in modern languages. He remained on the faculty as instructor and professor for over forty years, dying in harness February 7, 1918. He also served as librarian and curator of the art collections and director of the Museum of Fine Arts. During his term of service he made various trips abroad for purposes of study, and in 1884 he received what was then a great honor, the degree of Ph.D. from the University of Berlin. As a teacher he won the respect and affection of the students, though many of them may have been later pricked in conscience at the thought of the pain which they must have caused him. A man of the most delicate feelings, with the scholar's love of accuracy and the artist's delight in and reverence for beauty, he was obliged to teach a lot of freshmen who cared little about either. Yet he always treated them with punctilious courtesy. No matter how stumbling and bad a recitation a pupil made, Professor Johnson's mode of putting an end to their mutual agony was to say "that is well." He knew that he must make allowance for youth. On one occasion when he had with some difficulty quieted a disturbance in the class room, he said: "I won't say anything to you now. I can't trust myself." At the close of the recitation the class waited for the thunder but none came. The Professor merely said: "I guess I won't say anything to you at all, only," and the tone became slightly pleading, "try to grow up as fast as you can."

Professor Johnson was a deeply religious man. He was a careful observer of the Sabbath, a regular attendant both at church and at the midweek prayer meeting and he endeavored to form an Order of the Prayer whose members should bind themselves to recite the Lord's Prayer daily. Says President Sills: "No one touched more deeply the inner

life of Bowdoin than he, and to no one on the faculty, not even to President Hyde, did pupils go with more problems." Mr. H. E. Andrews, one of Professor Johnson's former pupils who carried on his art class after his death, said to them: "We are desolate that the keen interest in our slightest achievement, the eager encouragement of our least good impulse, the swift sympathy and the quick, modest, almost apologetic but always precious counsel for our little problems and perplexities, the vivid gesture, the characteristic sidelong glance that marked the triumph of friendliness over shyness—we are desolate that all these things which meant the physical presence of the man are gone." All who have studied under Professor Johnson will recognize the portrait. Professor Johnson was a noble man and an inspiring teacher, he was also a poet and a very broad and very learned scholar. President Sills says:

A few years ago in one week I had personal acquaintance with examples of his learning in three widely different fields. Professor Neilson, then of Harvard University, now President of Smith College, happened to be in Brunswick and met Dr. Johnson. Mr. Neilson is a real authority on Shakespearean text, and in our conversation we discussed one of the problems connected with that subject. When Mr. Johnson left us, Mr. Neilson said to me: "He knows far more about Shakespearean text criticism than I do: I do not believe there is any one in the country who knows more." A few evenings later I took Professor Hendrickson of Yale, Professor of Latin there, to call on Mr. Johnson. We talked on various themes and Mr. Johnson read us his translation of the great passages in the third book of Lucretius. "That is by far the best and by far the most accurate version of those lines I know," said the visiting Latin scholar. At about the same time Professor Lunt, who of all our graduates has perhaps done the most distinguished work in European history, was working on a monograph connected with a remote corner of that field. I think he was writing on the papal tribute in England in the fourteenth century. Like many others of us he took his essay to Mr. Johnson for comment and criticism; and as he told me later he got more valuable suggestions from him than from any of his own colleagues in history.

Professor Johnson published two books of original poems, "Where Beauty Is," and "The Seer," edited Schiller's "Ballads," and Shakespeare's "Midsummer Night's Dream," and translated Heredia's "Sonnets." But his greatest book is his translation of Dante's "Divine Comedy," on which he worked for twenty-three years. Of this work Pio Rajna, the great Italian scholar, wrote to him: "This version seems to me truly excellent; and it has never happened to me in reading the *Comoedia* translated into any language whatsoever that the original echoed constantly in my ear in the way that it does here."

[L. C. H.]

SYLVESTER JUDD, Author, was born at Westhampton, Massachusetts, July 23, 1913, and was a descendant of Thomas Judd, who emigrated to New England about 1633. His great-grandfather, Rev. Jonathan Judd, was the first minister of Southampton, Massachusetts. His father (1789-1860), for whom he was named, was a self-taught scientist, owner and

editor, in 1823-34, of the "Hampshire Gazette," published at Northampton, and a zealous antiquarian.

Sylvester Judd spent his boyhood and youth in Northampton. He was graduated from Yale in 1836, and then took charge of a private school at Templeton, Massachusetts. Before going to college, he had united with the Orthodox Congregational Church his parents attended, and it was their hope that he would enter the ministry. At Templeton he became acquainted with Unitarianism, and soon discarded the beliefs of his earlier years, declining about that time a professorship in Miami College, Ohio, a Presbyterian institution. He entered the divinity school connected with Harvard College, and on his graduation in 1840 was ordained pastor of the Unitarian church at Augusta, Maine, with which he was connected until his death. During his last year in the Divinity School he published a series of papers entitled "A Young Man's Account of His Conversion from Calvinism," and in 1843 began the work on which his reputation as an author chiefly rests: "Margaret: A Tale of the Real and Ideal, Including Sketches of a Place Not Before Described, Called Mons Christi." A revised edition, in two volumes, appeared in 1851, and a series of illustrations, by Felix O. C. Darley, in 1856. To use his own words, "the book designs to promote the cause of liberal Christianity; it would give body and soul to the divine elements of the Gospel. It aims to subject bigotry, cant, Pharisaism and all intolerance. Its basis is Christ. . . . It designs also . . . to aid peace, temperance and universal freedom . . . but more particularly . . . the book seems partially to fill up a gap long left open in Unitarian literature—that of imaginative writings." The story is much admired for its portrayals of rural life at the time of its author's boyhood and for its beautiful descriptive passages. In 1850 Mr. Judd published a companion to "Margaret," "Richard Edney, and the Governor's Family, a Rus-Urban Tale," the scene of the story being laid in Maine, and at a later period than that of "Margaret." In the same year appeared "Philo, an Evangeliad," a didactic poem in blank verse defending Unitarian doctrines. He left in manuscript "The White Hills, an American Tragedy," based on the same Indian legend used by Hawthorne in his "Great Carbuncle." The year after his death, "The Church, in a Series of Discourses," was published. Mr. Judd was a popular speaker on temperance and other reforms.

He was married, in 1841, to a daughter of Hon. Reuel Williams, of Augusta, Maine, who with three children survived him. A volume compiled by Arethusa Hull, and entitled "Life and Character of Sylvester Judd," was published in 1854. He died in Augusta, Maine, January 26, 1853.

JAMES OTIS KALER was born at Winterport, Maine, on March 19, 1848. His mother, Maria Thompson, was a niece of Count Rumford, the famous chemist. He had only a public school education, and at seventeen became connected with the "Boston Journal." In 1870 he went to New

York and for ten years he served on the staff of various papers. In 1880 he with great difficulty found a publisher for a boy's story, "Toby Tyler, by James Otis." It was so successful that he devoted himself to writing juvenile books and stories for magazines. His works are among the best of the juvenile class, and the "Charming Sally," which is a fascinating tale of 1765, is also popular with older readers. About 1898 Mr. Kaler returned to Maine, settled in Portland, married a lady of that city, and accepted the position of superintendent of schools at South Portland. He died on December 11, 1912. [L. C. H.]

ELIJAH KELLOGG was born in Portland, Maine, on May 20, 1813. His father, also named Elijah, was pastor of the Second Congregational Church in Portland, and was held in high regard because of his noble character. The younger Elijah was a very active, restless boy, and when only thirteen he went to sea. Later he worked on a farm belonging to relatives in Gorham, then attended the academy, and at the age of twenty-three entered Bowdoin, graduating in 1840. He prepared himself for the ministry at Andover Seminary, and was called to the pastorate of a little church at Harpswell, a town, partly peninsula, partly islands, near Brunswick. He remained there until 1855, when he became pastor of the Mariners' Church and chaplain of the Sailors' Home in Boston. Mr. Kellogg labored there for ten years with great success and then, as conditions had changed and he was in financial difficulties, he resigned. He made Boston his headquarters for seventeen years, writing boys' books and supplying for various churches. In 1882 he returned to Maine and resumed his work at the Harpswell church, his connection with which he had never entirely severed. Except for a five years' pastorate in the neighboring town of Topsham he continued as minister at Harpswell until his death on March 17, 1901.

Mr. Kellogg was a wise and faithful pastor and a devout Christian, but the same could be said of many men. It was his success as a writer for boys that won him a fame that was almost national. When a student at Andover he was obliged to deliver a rhetorical exercise, after which criticism would be called for. With a hope which the event justified, of escaping the latter ordeal by offering something entirely out of the ordinary course, he wrote and declaimed "Spartacus to the Gladiators." Probably no prose "piece" has been equally popular with American boys. It ranked as a "classic," or a "chestnut," with the rides of Paul Revere and Sheridan, and "The Boy on the Burning Deck." Three years later Mr. Kellogg wrote for the use of a friend in Bowdoin College, "Regulus to the Carthaginians," which had a vogue almost equal to that of "Spartacus." Other declamations were prepared from time to time but these were less successful.

Mr. Kellogg was more than fifty years old when he began to write his stories for boys. Most men beginning so late would have failed, but from youth to old age Mr. Kellogg sympathized with and loved boys, and

his affection was returned. They found that this minister, unlike so many of his brethren, "was all the time at heart a boy himself, that he was interested in them not simply as a professional duty but because he could not help it." Bowdoin students who had been "rusticated" were frequently sent to spend the period of their enforced absence with him, often to their lifelong profit. With such qualifications and experience, Mr. Kellogg was enabled to write stories which pleased and held the boy readers of his day. The first and most popular of his books, which gave its name to a series, was "Good Old Times"; it describes under fictitious names the settling of his great-great-grandparents, Hugh and Elizabeth McClellan, at what is now Gorham, Maine. Another set, the "Elm Island Series," describes the inhabitants and mode of life on the islands off the Maine coast. The "Wolf River Series," the only one whose scene is not located in Maine, tells the story of a small Scotch-Irish group which under great difficulties established a settlement in Pennsylvania. The "Whispering Pine Series" describes life at Bowdoin College. The stories, though very different from the old fashioned Sunday school book, were written with a moral purpose. Late in life Mr. Kellogg received letters from men of achievement, attributing their success to his books. He had "taught endurance, pluck, integrity, self-sacrifice. Such was his work as an author, and it was a work worth while." Professor Mitchell in his preface to the book on Elijah Kellogg, of which he was editor, gives an excellent thumbnail portrait of him. He calls him "the boy tingling with life and full of fun to his fingertips; the college student genial, prankish and zealous; the farmer-preacher, devout and resourceful, making pen and book, scythe and hoe, seine and boat, all his ready servants to do God's work; the author finding his way straight to the heart of the growing boy; the aged man fond as ever of the soil and the sea, and after all the rubs and chances of a long life, still young in spirit, strong in faith, and free from bitterness and guile."

[L. C. H.]

HENRY KNOX, Soldier, was born in Boston, on July 25, 1750. He was of Scotch-Irish stock, his grandparents on both sides of the house emigrating to Massachusetts from the North of Ireland in 1729. At the age of twelve, Henry lost his father and was obliged to leave school and assist in the support of the family. He obtained a position in a book store where he made good use of his opportunities to read, and continued as a clerk until his majority, when he opened a store of his own. Knox also took much interest in military affairs, serving in two of the Boston militia companies. Although his store had been "a great resort for the British officers and Tory ladies who were the *ton* at that period," Knox was an ardent patriot, and in June, 1775, he stole out of Boston to tender his services to the "rebels." The Americans were sadly deficient in engineers, and Knox's knowledge of fortification, though almost entirely one of theory, proved of the greatest use. In November, Congress, on the recommenda-

tion of Washington, appointed him colonel of the regiment of artillery. Knox remained in command of Washington's artillery throughout the war, gradually rising in rank until on March 22, 1782, Congress made him a major-general, and in special recognition of his services at Yorktown made the commission run from November 15, 1781. A year later an attempt was made to induce the officers to go on a military "strike" to obtain their back pay and security for the pensions which had been promised them, and Knox rendered valuable aid to Washington in defeating the scheme. His action did not, however, spring from any lack of sympathy with his brothers-in-arms, for at almost the same time he was drawing up the plan of an association, the Order of the Cincinnati, which should bind them together and assist indigent widows and orphans of deceased members.

The disbanding of the army left Knox in an embarrassing position financially, from which he was rescued by his election by Congress as Secretary at War² in 1785. He held the office throughout the period of the Confederation and continued as head of the department under President Washington until 1795, when he resigned to devote himself to the development of his lands in Maine. Besides attending to his military duties, the Secretary of War had charge of naval affairs. The navy of the Revolution had ceased to exist, and when in 1794 steps were taken for building a new one, "the initial difficulties of the task of naval organization were shouldered by Knox. It was Knox who planned the work of constructing six ships, of procuring material, and of selecting officers, naval agents and skilled constructors."

Knox cannot claim a position in the first rank of American statesmen, but he had a strong, active mind, his work as secretary was praised by Washington, and these facts should overbalance the charge of stupidity made by Jefferson in his very acid *Anas*.

When Knox became a resident of Maine, he entered on the last and least fortunate part of his life. In 1791 he and others planned a huge speculation in Maine land based chiefly on credit, which failed utterly and would have ruined Knox had not Senator Bingham of Philadelphia come to his assistance. But Knox did not give up the hope of becoming a great landed proprietor in Maine. His wife, who was a granddaughter of General Waldo, owned a fifth of the great Waldo patent, and Knox had succeeded in purchasing the remainder. In 1793 he had begun the erection of a fine mansion on St. Georges river in Maine, near the village of Thomaston, and in 1795 he took up his residence in the new chateau to which Mrs. Knox, influenced, it is said, by her friend, Mrs. Bingham, who had spent much time in France, gave the name of Montpelier. The General

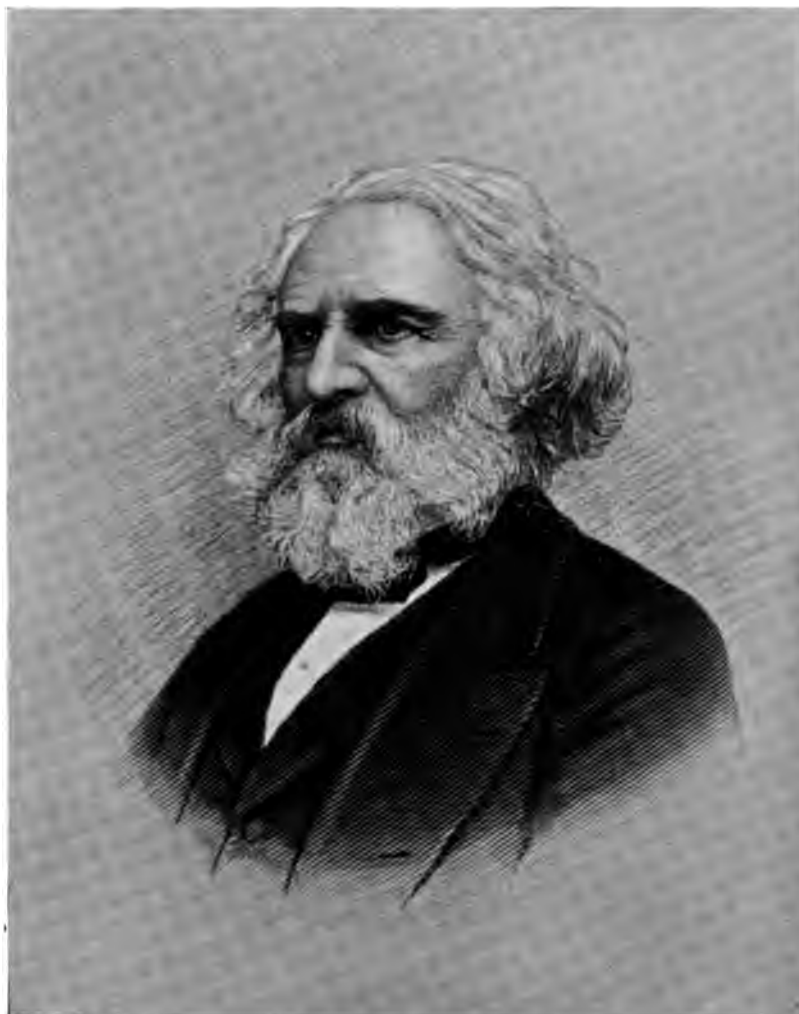
²Congress took the title from England where beside a Secretary of State for War there was a Secretary at War who had charge of certain matters of supply. Under the Constitution Knox was commissioned Secretary for the Department of War.

lost no time in developing his estate, and in justifying the opinion of his friends expressed ten years before that he "would make but an indifferent trader." Besides leasing lands he imported and bred cattle and sheep, erected and operated saw mills, made brick and burnt lime, built ships, and, first by himself and then with a friend, engaged in general trade. Harrison Gray Otis said of him: "His projects of improvement and civilization were worthy of Peter the Great, and would have required no inconsiderable portion of Peter's resources to be carried into effect. He regarded his lime kilns as mines of gold, and his standing timber as if cut and dried in the markets of Boston." The natural results followed, and on Knox's death his estate was found to be insolvent. After providing for lawyers' fees, an allowance to Mrs. Knox and her dower, the creditors obtained only 8½ per cent. of their dues. General Knox died on October 25, 1806, at the age of fifty-six. After passing safely through the battles and sieges of the Revolution he died from swallowing a piece of chicken bone, it could not be dislodged, mortification set in and soon proved fatal.

Knox was a man of sincere and disinterested patriotism, a brave and able soldier, with a keen, perhaps too keen, a sense of the demands of military "honor." Surgeon Thatcher says of him in his "Journal": "He was frank, generous and sincere and in his intercourse with the world uniformly just." He united qualities not often combined. "When moving along the street he had an air of grandeur and self-complacency, but it wounded no man's self-love." He was by nature generous, cheerful and affectionate, making those around him happy and rejoicing in their happiness, yet he was no mere "good fellow." "He was affable without familiarity, dignified without parade, imposing without arrogance." Perhaps the greatest honor ever paid him and the surest evidence of his worth is that he was one of the very few who won not merely the esteem but the warm friendship of George Washington [L. C. H.]

HENRY WADSWORTH LONGFELLOW, Poet, was born in Portland, Maine, February 27, 1807, a son of the Hon. Stephen and Zilpah (Wadsworth) Longfellow. He spent his boyhood on Congress street, Portland, his mother's ancestral home, and began school life at the age of three, attending a school kept by Mrs. Fellows. He entered a public school in Love Lane, Portland, in 1812, where he remained for a week, when he was removed by his parents to a private school kept by Mr. Wright and later by Mr. N. H. Carter. In 1821 he was admitted to Bowdoin College but studied at home the first year, actually entering as a sophomore.

During his course there he contributed occasional poems to periodicals, his first printed verses, "The Battle of Lovell's Pond," appearing in the Portland "Gazette" of November 17, 1820. At the senior examination he made a translation from Horace which is said to have so impressed one of the college trustees, Mr. Benjamin Orr, that he recommended young Longfellow for a proposed chair of modern languages. The trustees agreed



Henry W. Longfellow

informally, but stipulated that Longfellow fit himself for the position in Europe. Accordingly after spending the winter of 1825-26 in rest at his Portland home, reading a little in his father's law office. on May 15, 1826, he sailed for Havre-de-Grace. He studied and traveled in France, Spain, Germany, Italy and England, and returned home in July, 1829, on receiving the news of the death of his sister Elizabeth. On the opening of the term of Bowdoin College in 1829, instead of the expected professorship he was offered the position of instructor, which he rejected. At a meeting of the board of trustees on September 1, 1829, it was voted to create the chair and elect him professor with a salary of \$800, which was afterward raised to \$1,000, a full professor's salary. He was also appointed librarian for one year with a salary of \$100. He held both of these positions until 1835, taught four modern languages and prepared his own text-books in French, Spanish and Italian. In April, 1831, he began to contribute to the "North American Review," articles on the origin and progress of the French, Spanish and Italian languages and literature and also original translations. On the establishment of the "New England Magazine" by Joseph T. Buckingham in 1831, he sent to the opening number the first of a series called "The Schoolmaster" which were scenes from his travels in France. They were the first sketches of his "Outre-Mer." He was married September 14, 1831, to Mary Storer, daughter of Judge Barrett and Anne (Storer) Potter of Portland, Maine. She is commemorated in Longfellow's "Footsteps of Angels" as

"the Being Beauteous
Who unto my youth was given
More than all things else to love me,
And is now a saint in Heaven."

They began housekeeping on Federal street, Brunswick, Maine, where Professor Longfellow attended his classes and continued his literary work. In 1833 he published his first book, "Coplas de Don Jorge Manrique," a translation from the Spanish, with an original essay. His second book, "Outre-Mer," was written somewhat after the style of Irving's "Sketch-Book" which had been Longfellow's favorite book when a boy. In December, 1834, he received a letter from President Josiah Quincy, offering him the professorship of modern languages at Harvard College, Professor Ticknor, who was about to resign his chair, having recommended him as his successor. When Longfellow accepted, it was suggested that he visit Europe for the purpose of perfecting himself in the German and Scandinavian tongues and he resigned from Bowdoin and in April, 1835, set sail with his wife for England, and thence, a few weeks later, went to Norway and Sweden. Late in the autumn he settled in Rotterdam, Holland, where his wife and child died, November 29, 1835. He passed the winter of 1835-36 in Heidelberg, Germany, where he met Bryant and his family. The spring and summer of 1836 were spent chiefly in Switzerland and the Tyrol, and at Interlachen he met Frances Appleton, who afterward became his wife. He reached home in November, 1836, and in December

was established as Smith professor of French and Spanish languages and literatures and belles lettres at Harvard. He continued his contributions to the periodicals, and in 1839 published "Hyperion, a Romance," which was inspired by Miss Appleton, who is pictured therein as "Mary Ashburton." In March, 1837, Nathaniel Hawthorne, a classmate of Longfellow's at Bowdoin, sent to Longfellow his "Twice-Told-Tales," which he noticed in the "North American Review" of July, 1837, and was thus among the first to recognize Hawthorne's genius. In this year he also formed a strong and lasting friendship with Cornelius C. Felton, George S. Hilliard, Henry C. Cleveland and Charles Sumner. They called themselves the "Five of Clubs" and earned the sobriquet of the "Mutual Admiration Society." "The Psalm of Life" appeared anonymously in the "Knickerbocker Magazine" in 1838, and was republished in Longfellow's first volume of poems, "The Voices of the Night," in 1839. He became a contributor to "Graham's Magazine," in 1841. In the spring of 1842 he obtained a six months' leave of absence and made a third visit to Europe. He was entertained in London for two weeks by Charles Dickens, and at Marienberg-on-the-Rhine, where he spent the summer, he made the acquaintance of the German poet Freiligrath, which ripened into friendship and lasted until the latter's death. He was married July 13, 1843, to Frances Elizabeth, daughter of Nathan and Maria Theresa (Gold) Appleton, and as a wedding gift Mr. Appleton presented to them Craigie House and estate, where the poet had lived since 1837. The subject of "Evangeline, a Tale of Acadia" (1847), was a gift from Hawthorne to Longfellow. This is considered Longfellow's representative poem and was his favorite among his own writings. Holmes likened it to some "exquisite symphony." He resigned his chair at Harvard in 1854, and at his suggestion James Russell Lowell was elected to fill the vacancy. "Hiawatha, an Indian Edda," which appeared in 1855, is said to be his most genuine addition to American literature, and has been translated into nearly all of the modern languages and into Latin. The poem won immediate recognition in Europe, and within four weeks of its publication ten thousand copies had been sold. When the "Atlantic Monthly" was established in 1857 Longfellow became a contributor. A sad accident befell Mrs. Longfellow on the afternoon of Tuesday, July 9, 1861. She was sealing up some of her children's curls when a match which had been dropped on the floor set fire to her dress and she was immediately enveloped in flames and died on the following day. Her husband in trying to smother the flames received serious injuries himself. Her death sadly affected the poet, who once remarked to a friend "I was too happy. I might fancy the gods envied me, if I could fancy heathen gods." Mrs. Longfellow left five children: Charles Appleton, a lieutenant in the 1st Massachusetts Cavalry during the Civil War; Ernest Wadsworth, the artist, and three daughters, Alice, Edith and Annie Allegre, who were the "blue-eyed banditti" of his "Children's Hour." The poet had commenced a translation of Dante's "The Divine Comedy" during the early



LONGFELLOW'S BIRTHPLACE, PORTLAND



LONGFELLOW HOME, PORTLAND



LONGFELLOW MONUMENT, PORTLAND

years of his Harvard professorship, and after his wife's death found solace in the completion of the work. This was regarded by many critics as the best translation in the English language. He visited Europe for the fourth time in 1868, and while in England had an interview with Queen Victoria at Windsor Castle on July 4, 1868, and was entertained by Tennyson at the Isle of Wight. He spent the winter and spring of 1868-69 in Italy, again made a brief stay in England, and returned to his home in Cambridge in August, 1859. For "The Hanging of the Crane," which first appeared in the "New York Ledger," in 1874, Longfellow received \$4,000. In 1875, with the assistance of John Owen, Mr. Longfellow began to edit a collection of poems, to which was given the title "Poems of Places" (1876-79), and after Senator Sumner's death he assisted in editing the remaining six volumes of the fifteen containing "The Works of Charles Sumner." On February 27, 1879, the occasion of the poet's seventy-second birthday, the children of Cambridge presented him with an arm-chair constructed from the wood of the old chestnut tree, made famous by his poem "The Village Blacksmith." He responded to this gift in that tender and touching poem, entitled "From My Armchair." His seventy-fifth birthday was generally celebrated all over the United States, especially by the school children. Charles Kingsley said of Longfellow: "His face was the mirror of his harmonious and lovely mind—I do not think I ever saw a finer human face." He has been called the "American poet laureate." He was an honorary member of the Historical and Geographical Society of Brazil, a corresponding member of the Imperial Academy of Sciences, St. Petersburg, and of the Royal Academy of Spain; a fellow of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences and a member of the Massachusetts Historical Society. A bust to his memory was placed in the poets' corner at Westminster Abbey, in March, 1884, he being the first and up to 1901 the only American author to be so honored. Longfellow Park was given to Cambridge by his children, and a monument to his memory was erected in Portland, Maine. His name was one of the twenty-three in "Class A, Authors and Editors" submitted in October, 1900, for a place in the Hall of Fame for Great Americans, New York University, and received eighty-five out of ninety-seven possible votes, Emerson alone in the class exceeding him with eighty-seven votes, Irving and Hawthorne receiving eighty-three and seventy-three votes respectively, and these four names were selected. He received the degree of LL.D. from Harvard in 1859, from Cambridge, England, in 1868, and from Bowdoin in 1874; and that of D.C.L. from Oxford, England, in 1869. The following is a list of the principal works of Longfellow: "Coplas de Don Jorge Manrique" (1833); "Outre-Mer" (1835); "Hyperion" (1839); "Voices of the Night" (1839); "Ballads and Other Poems" (1841); "Poems on Slavery" (1842); "Spanish Student" (1843); "Poets and Poetry of Europe" (1845); "Belfry of Bruges" (1846); "Evangeline" (1847); "Kavanagh" (1849); "Seaside and the Fireside" (1850); "Golden Legend" (1851); "Hiawatha" (1855); "Miles Standish"

(1858); "Tales of a Wayside Inn" (1863); "Flower-de-Luce" (1867); "Divine Comedy of Dante Alighieri" (1867-70); "New England Tragedies" (1868); "Divine Tragedy" (1871); "Three Books of Song" (1872); "Christus" (1872); "Aftermath" (1873); "Hanging of the Crane" (1874); "Masque of Pandora" (1875); "Keramos" (1878); "Ultima Thule" (1880); "In the Harbor, Part II of Ultima Thule" (1883); "Michael Angelo" (1884). "Biographies of Longfellow" have been written by Thomas Davidson (1882); Francis H. Underwood (1882); W. Sloane Kenedy (1882); George Lowell Austin (1883); Samuel Longfellow (1885); Eric S. Robertson (London, 1887), and others. Longfellow died of peritonitis at his Cambridge home on March 24, 1882, and at the funeral services were read the verses from "Hiawatha" beginning: "He is dead, the sweet musician." Fields, Holmes, Emerson and Whittier were among the mourners.

SAMUEL LONGFELLOW, Clergyman, was born in Portland, Maine, June 18, 1819, son of Stephen and Zilpah (Wadsworth) Longfellow, and brother of the poet, Henry Wadsworth Longfellow.

Samuel was the youngest of eight children: a delicate boy, with a heart and mind open and sensitive to poetry, music and art, and thoughtful and devout in spirit from his earliest days. He was educated at Portland Academy, and entered Harvard College in 1835, at the age of sixteen. He was graduated in 1839, in the same class with Rev. Edward E. Hale. The first year after graduation he taught in the family of a southern gentleman, but his natural inclination led him to select the ministry as his life work, and he entered Harvard Divinity School in 1842. While there he came under the influence of the transcendental movement, and he formed a close intimacy with Samuel Johnson, the oriental scholar, which lasted through life. Before graduation he went in 1843 to Fayal, where he acted as tutor in the family of Charles W. Dabney, the U. S. Consul, returning the following year to continue his studies in the Divinity School. During this year, in conjunction with Samuel Johnson, he prepared a new hymn book for the use of Unitarian congregations, which marked a great advance in poetic and spiritual quality over those in use. On February 16, 1848, he was installed over a Unitarian church at Fall River, and remained there three years. In 1851 he went to Europe for a year as tutor and travelling companion to a young man. On his return he occupied different pulpits for a time, and in October, 1853, was installed over the Second Society of Brooklyn, New York. In 1860, after seven years' service, he resigned his position, as his health was not strong, and again visited Europe with his friend, Mr. Samuel Johnson. He made three other journeys to Europe after this—in 1865, 1868 and 1888. After resigning his pastorate at Brooklyn, Mr. Longfellow preached only as occasion offered; most often to the Twenty-eighth Congregational Society in Boston, gathered together by Theodore Parker. In 1877 he was called to the pastorate of the Unitarian

Society of Germantown, Pennsylvania. He remained there until the autumn of 1882, when he resigned in order to devote himself to writing the biography of his brother, Henry W. Longfellow. The remaining years of his life were passed quietly in Cambridge. Mr. Longfellow's sermons and a few essays on religious subjects were published in a volume together. He had a genuine poetic gift, and his hymns have formed a valuable addition to religious literature, being filled with fervor and spirituality. They are found in the collections of nearly every denomination. His hymns and verses were collected and published after his death. Although gentle and retiring in manner, Mr. Longfellow was a man of strong and decided feeling where any question of principle or true sentiment was involved. He was fearless in the expression of his opinions in religious matters, and believed in absolute sincerity of thought and word, not only in things of the spirit, but in questions of the day. This was shown by his strong utterances from the pulpit in opposition to slavery. He died in Portland, Maine, after a brief illness, October 3, 1892.

NATHAN LORD, Educator, was born at Berwick, Maine, on November 28, 1792. When only seventeen he graduated from Bowdoin "after a college course distinguished by good scholarship and great vivacity." He taught at Phillips Exeter Academy for two years, studied for the ministry at Andover, graduating in 1815, and was called to the pastorate of a Congregational church at Amherst, New Hampshire, where he remained twelve years. In 1828 he was chosen president of Dartmouth. He had not completed his thirty-sixth year, and doubtless many estimable old gentlemen looked with horror on the choice of such an infant to so dignified a position. "He was the youngest college president in the country, and the youngest man, save one, who had ever been elected as head of an American college." But there was need of the vigor of youth. Dartmouth was poor and in debt and its few buildings were in extremely bad condition. President Lord at once set to work to complete the raising of a fund of at least \$30,000, which had been begun by his predecessor, and by his utmost personal efforts he just succeeded in doing it. The new president was also obliged to face the danger of a student rebellion which might have ruined the college. Disorder had followed his coming and the ringleaders were punished. The other students took their part and threatened to leave in a body. A student then in college thus described in after years the result: "Some will recollect the electrical effect of a speech of Dr. Lord's to the students who were moved to rebel. . . . One sentence from Dr. Lord went like a loaded shell into their ranks. It was this: 'Go, young gentlemen, if you wish; we can bear to see our seats vacated, but not our laws violated.' This was said with such regal decision and dignity that no man of those classes spoke of deserting the college. It was an appropriate beginning of President Lord's long rule." "In his long reign of thirty-five years, he so impressed upon 'his young gentlemen' (he always called

them that, at least), his force of character, his initiative, his self-reliance, his democratic ideas, that it is truly said of him that 'probably the distinguishing marks of the Dartmouth type of man were received from him more than from any other source.'"

Dr. Lord had his idiosyncrasies, some of which were probably hurtful to the college. He insisted that all of the graduating class should have Commencement parts or that the speakers be chosen by lot. He believed that any other method of selection would be contrary to democratic equality and that the giving of honors was "unchristian and immoral as making an appeal to wrong motives and hurtful ambition." The President also held unusual and what were regarded as unorthodox views concerning the second coming of Christ. These, however, were comparatively unimportant matters, scarcely known to the general public. More serious were his very peculiar views on the slavery question. Mr. Lord had been a radical anti-slavery man. At the presidential election of 1844, one of the four votes given in Hanover for the Liberty party was cast by President Lord. A few years later he read a pamphlet on slavery by B. F. French of Lowell, and underwent "a conversion almost as sudden and startling as was Paul's to Christianity." He became an earnest and public defender of slavery as an institution divinely ordained for the punishment of sin, like war and pestilence. President Lord had no prejudice against negroes; he admitted them to Dartmouth, officiated at the installation of a negro clergyman, and even gave money to help fugitive slaves to escape, but this did not save him and even the college of which he was the head, from severe blame. After the beginning of the Civil War, matters became worse, and in 1863 the trustees passed a vote specifically dissociating themselves from President Lord's views on slavery. Dr. Lord took this as a personal censure and a violation of academic freedom and at once resigned.

"Nathan Lord in the retirement of his study—he lived out the remaining seven years of his life at Hanover—could justly reflect that he had done a man's work in his long presidency. He found the college groping, he left it walking erect and firmly. The faculty had increased from ten to seventeen. The shabby old college buildings and unkempt grounds had been transformed and three new halls and an observatory had been erected. The assets of the institution had grown from \$85,000 to \$201,000, and the president had sent 2,675 young citizens into the world, most of whom were doing something that the world wanted done."^a

[L. C. H.]

MAXIM BROTHERS, Inventors.—Hiram Stevens Maxim was born at Sangerville, Maine, on February 5, 1840. He had only a common school education. He worked as an apprentice at coach-building, in the machine works of his uncle, Levi Stevens, and as a draughtsman in an iron works and shipbuilding company. He gave much attention to problems of

^aQuint, "Story of Dartmouth."

illumination, first by gas, and then by electricity, "introducing the widely-used process of treating the carbon filaments by heating them in an atmosphere of hydrocarbon vapor." About 1880 he went to England, which he made his home. In 1901, having become a British subject, he was knighted by Queen Victoria. During the early eighties he invented the first practical self-working or automatic machine gun, in which the recoil served as a means of reloading. To increase the efficiency of the gun he invented a smokeless powder known as Maximite, "a mixture of trinitrocellulose nitroglycerine and castor oil." He also devoted much attention to aeronautics. Sir Hiram died on November 24, 1916. He was survived by a son, Hiram Percy Maxim, who has remained an American, but in other respects has followed in his father's footsteps and has distinguished himself by numerous inventions, particularly that of the Maxim silencer.

Hudson Maxim, a brother of Hiram, was born at Orneville, Maine, on February 3, 1853. He was educated at Wesleyan Seminary, Kent's Hill, spent a few years in the publishing business, and devoted himself to making powder. He was the first in the United States to make smokeless powder. In 1901 he sold to the United States government the formula of Maximite, "the first high explosive to be fired through heavy armor plate" and has perfected Stabillite, a smokeless powder producing much better ballistic results than any other." He is also the inventor of "The United States detonating fuse for his explosive armor piercing projectiles." In 1915 Mr. Maxim wrote a book for the times, "Defenseless America," and in the following year "Dynamite Stories." He had also some five years before published a book which would appear to be less closely connected with his life work, "The Science of Poetry and the Philosophy of Language." Mr. Maxim has a daughter, Florence, now Mrs. George Albert Cutter, who has won some reputation as a musical composer and a writer of plays. [L. C. H.]

HUGH McCULLOCH, Financier, was born in Kennebunk, Maine, on December 7, 1808. His father was a prominent ship owner, but met with heavy losses in the War of 1812 and was unable to give his son the education he desired. The boy, however, studied for a year at Bowdoin. He then taught school and studied law and in 1832 completed his legal course in Boston. He then went to Indiana, where after practicing law about two years he accepted a good position in a bank and henceforth devoted himself to finance. In 1857 he became president of the Bank of the State of Indiana and carried it through the panic of 1857 "without suspension of specie payments, an exceptional performance not only in the West but in the whole country." When the national banking system was organized Secretary Chase appointed him Comptroller of the Currency. He served with great credit, and on the resignation of Mr. Fessenden succeeded him as Secretary of the Treasury. Here he was promptly confronted with the great problems of economic reconstruction. The country was on a paper basis, all authorities on finance admitted the desirability of resum-

ing specie payments, but the question was how and when. Jay Cooke, the banker, "the financier of the Civil War," and David A. Wells, the well known authority on revenue and the champion of free trade, believed that the country was in a condition to bear heroic treatment and that greenbacks should be withdrawn from circulation until those that were left should be equal to specie. This plan has received the decided approval of Mr. Rhodes. John Sherman believed that the country should be nursed and no "radical measures taken until increased prosperity raised our credit and gradually advanced the value of our currency to the specie standard." This view has been endorsed by Mr. Stanwood in a careful argument in his history of the tariff. Mr. McCulloch adopted the former opinion. He obtained wide authority from Congress to contract the currency and used his power vigorously though not to its fullest extent. This caused a great outcry and business conditions lent force to the opposition. Neither the Secretary nor Mr. Wells, now commissioner of internal revenue, showed tact in their dealings with Congress, and the new powers of the secretary were withdrawn. On January 1, 1871, a private banking-house was opened in London under the name of Jay Cooke, McCulloch & Company, Mr. McCulloch being the London head. When in 1873, Jay Cooke & Company failed, owing chiefly to the attempts of Mr. Cooke to save the Northern Pacific Railway, a course which McCulloch had steadily opposed, Mr. McCulloch continued the London business, as head of the firm of McCulloch & Company, but the attempt brought little success and he returned to America and passed the rest of his life as a "gentleman farmer," except for a few months as Secretary of the Treasury at the close of the term of President Arthur. In 1888 Mr. McCulloch published an interesting book of reminiscences under the title of "Men and Measures of Half a Century; Sketches and Comments." He died on May 24, 1895.

Mr. Rhodes says of McCulloch that he "was a broad-minded banker, a man of intelligence and of character beyond reproach. The pages of his 'Recollections' reveal to us a man of refined though simple tastes and of high aspirations, one who kept his eyes and ears open and profited by intercourse with his fellows,—a public servant of the highest order, delighting in his work." Other criticisms have been less favorable. Secretary Welles blamed him for allowing subordinates to assume undue authority. The Cookes and Mr. Oberholzer, the biographer of Jay Cooke, accused him of a lack of firmness. It may be that he carried the readiness to learn from others for which Mr. Rhodes praises him, too far. [L. C. H.]

EDGAR WILSON NYE, Humorist, was born at Shirley, near Moosehead Lake, Maine, August 25, 1850. Of his ancestry he himself says: "The Nyes are proverbially reticent about their genealogy. Some of them claim to be of French extraction, and I have a cousin who says that he is a descendant of Marshal Ney, that being the spelling of the family name in an early day. I had some curiosity a few years ago, and tried to learn all



EDGAR WILSON NYE

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I could of this matter. I traced our people back to the European police courts and even beyond that, discovering at last, in France, our Coat of Alms, but I lost it from the line where it was airing last summer."

When he was a little over two years old, his parents removed to St. Croix county, Northern Wisconsin, where the boy received a thorough academical education, after completing which he studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1876. Chance, however, threw in his way a position as reporter of an evening paper in Laramie City, Wyoming. This he held for a year, and then practised law for a time, being for six years a justice of the peace. He also held other offices, among them that of postmaster of Laramie, his resignation of which, addressed to President Arthur, escaped from official hands at Washington, and finding its way into print, was copied, as he himself declares, "from Japan to South Africa and from Beersheba to a given point." He was never enamored of the law, however, and in course of time drifted back into journalism, and became very successful as a special writer for current humorous literature. He combined good business methods with a degree of dilligence and pleasure in his work which soon put him beyond the usual trials and griefs of struggling writers, albeit there was a time when his remuneration was but \$1 a column.

In association with James Whitcomb Riley, the "Hoosier Poet," he began in 1885 to give readings from his works and this somewhat novel partnership was highly successful. He continued to lecture and travel extensively throughout Canada and the United States, visiting Europe between-times, in the meanwhile publishing several volumes of collected sketches, one in collaboration with Mr. Riley. His publications in book form are: "Bill Nye and the Boomerang" (Chicago, 1881); "The Forty Liars" (1883); "Baled Hay" (1884); "Bill Nye's Blossom Rock" (1885); "Thinks and Remarks by Bill Nye" (1886); "Fun, Wit, and Poetry" in conjunction with Riley (1891); "Bill Nye's History of the United States" (1894); "Bill Nye's History of England" (1895). In 1891 he produced "The Cadi," a comedy which met with moderate success, and in 1895, in collaboration with Paul M. Potter, "The Stag Party."

Mr. Nye married, on March 7, 1877, Miss Clara Frances Smith, by whom he had two sons and two daughters. He died at his home February 22, 1896.

JAMES RIPLEY OSGOOD, Publisher, was born in Fryeburg, Maine, February 22, 1836. He was graduated from Bowdoin, A.B., 1854, A.M., 1857; was a clerk for Ticknor & Fields, publishers, at the Old Corner Book Store, Boston, Massachusetts, 1855-64; member of the firm, 1864-69; of the firms, Fields, Osgood & Co., 1869-71; James R. Osgood & Company, 1871-78; Houghton, Osgood & Company, 1878-80; James R. Osgood & Company, 1880-85; London agent for Harper & Brothers, 1885-90; and of the house of Osgood, McIlvaine & Company, London, 1890-92. He was elected a member of the Century Association, New York City, in 1866.

He never married. His sister, Katharine Putnam Osgood, born May 25, 1842, was the author of: "Driving Home the Cows" and other poems. He died in London, England, May 18, 1892.

SARA PAYSON PARTON (Sara Payson Willis, "Fanny Fern," Mrs. Sara Payson Eldridge, Mrs. Sara Payson Farrington), was born at Portland, Maine, July 7, 1811, and was christened Grata Payson, after the mother of the Congregational divine, whose pastorate in that city was so celebrated; but the name was changed to Sara. She was a sister of Nathaniel Parker Willis, the poet.

Educated in the schools of Boston, Massachusetts, and at the Young Ladies' Seminary of Catharine E. Beecher, in Hartford, Connecticut, where Harriet Beecher (afterward Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe) was a teacher, she won the reputation of a merry, high-spirited girl. In 1834 she was married to Charles Eldridge, of Boston, whose death twelve years later left her with two children to support. She was subsequently married to Mr. Farrington, a merchant of Boston, but their union was brief. A fiery essay, signed "Fanny Fern" (1851), was her first literary venture, and led to a series of essays which speedily gave her a competence. Up to June 1, 1854, 132,000 of her "Fern Leaves" (published in 1853) had been sold in the United States, and 48,000 in Great Britain. In 1854 she published her first novel, "Ruth Hall," which excited much criticism, and a condemnatory review appeared in the New York "Protestant Episcopal Quarterly Review." 50,000 copies were sold within eight months after its publication. "Rose Clark" (1855), her second novel, was also successful in its sale. She made the acquaintance of James Parton in N. P. Willis' "Home Journal" office, in New York City, and was married to him in January, 1856. During that year, her second book for juveniles, the "Play Day Book," was issued, and in 1857 "Fresh Leaves" was published. This book contains a story originally written for the New York "Ledger," for which she received from its proprietor, Robert Bonner, \$100 per column. She had an engagement which began in 1854, to furnish one article weekly to that paper, and she did this faithfully for eighteen years. "Folly as it Flies" appeared in 1868, made up from these contributions to the "Ledger." Grace Greenwood said in her "Eminent Women of the Age," "Both (Mrs. Parton and her husband) were authors whose provinces bordered on Bohemia. . . . They were both acute, independent thinkers, rather than students or philosophers; they were rather special pleaders than reasoners or logicians." Mrs. Parton died in New York City, October 10, 1872.

SERGEANT SMITH PRENTISS, orator, was born in Portland, Maine, on September 13, 1808. Four years later his parents moved to Gorham, where he fitted for college under Rev. Reuben Nason, a teacher famous for his thoroughness, who took pride and delight in promising boys but had little tolerance for blockheads. In Prentiss he found a pupil after his own heart and the young student entered Bowdoin College as a Junior before he had

completed his sixteenth year." His entrance examination was brilliantly successful and during his course he was recognized as a lad of great promise, particularly as a speaker. He graduated in 1826 and a few months later removed to Mississippi, where he supported himself by teaching until he could obtain admission to the bar. In 1834 he was elected to Congress, but his seat was contested and the House decided by the casting vote of Speaker Polk that the "election" was illegal. Prentiss, however, had triumphed in defeat. He had been permitted to address the House in his own behalf and his eloquence made him at once a national figure. Adams, Calhoun and Clay praised his speech in the highest terms, and though it was inadequately reported it won the admiration of the whole country. At a new election he was chosen by a large majority and was seated without opposition. His success in his new position was instantaneous and complete. It is said that "no member was listened to with greater pleasure or commanded a larger audience than he. The House was filled with the elite and intellect of Washington when he spoke. The Senate was without a quorum." But he cared little for office, and declined to stand for re-election. He could not, however, withdraw from politics, for from all over the country came continual calls for assistance in political campaigns. His natural bent toward speaking and his sense of duty—for he was a most zealous and sincere Whig—forbade him to refuse. He was also sought for other than political occasions, and for the rest of his life he stood in the front rank of American orators. When Mississippi took advantage of doubtful technicalities to repudiate her debts, Prentiss fought the scheme with all the force that was in him, and some years later he removed to Louisiana, chiefly, indeed, for financial reasons, but partly because he did not wish his children to grow up within reach of the infamous doctrines of the repudiating State. In Louisiana, as in Mississippi, Prentiss won a foremost place at the bar, but he died on July 1, 1850, of choleraic dysentery aggravated by over-work.

In leaving New England, Prentiss never lost his esteem and affection for his old home. He called Casco Bay "the fairest dimple on ocean's cheek," and Portland "the brightest jewel in the diadem that adorns ocean's brow." In 1849 he delivered an oration at New Orleans which was a noble tribute to the character and the institutions of New England. But he acquired some of the least estimable qualities and feelings of the Southerner. Highly sensitive and knowing that the courage of a Yankee was easily suspected, he fought two duels with General (later Governor and Senator) Foote. Although desirous of giving legal protection to the slave, he ceased to regard slavery as a great moral evil and to desire its ultimate abolition. A broadminded patriot and an ardent Unionist proclaiming that the several States were but different rooms in one great mansion, he yet declared in his address on New England at New Orleans that "if such a

¹⁴Prentiss, however, always regretted taking a part of his college course in an academy, and entering so young.

calamity as secession came he could only cast his lot with the land of his wife and children."

But if Prentiss had serious weaknesses he also had many virtues and had them in a high degree. He was utterly fearless, incurably generous, devoted to his family and thoroughly sincere, honest and loyal.

As an orator Prentiss was ranked by his contemporaries among the greatest of his time. Ben Perley Poore went so far as to say that "he was the most eloquent man that he ever heard in Congress." Wendell Phillips classed him with Clay, Calhoun and Webster. After listening to Prentiss at a Webster dinner, Edward Everett asked Webster, "did you ever hear the like?" and received the reply "only from Prentiss himself." Prentiss seldom wrote out his speeches, and when he did they were lacking in his usual fire and brilliancy. The presence of a great audience inspired him and was necessary if his imagination was to reach its highest flight; then he seemed incomparable. He has been called the greatest extemporaneous speaker that ever lived. But though his language was not premeditated, the subject treated was given careful study. "The garlands of rhetoric were woven round the columns of thought." Even his improvisations were based on thorough training. At college he had been a member of a select club, the Spouteroi, whose chief aim was practice in extemporaneous speaking. From boyhood he had loved and studied the masterpieces of English literature. As a man he made the writing of an ordinary letter a task, so careful was he in his choice of words. He was a master of pathos, of wit, of sarcasm and invective. He excelled, too, in close knit, logical argument.

Sergeant S. Prentiss died at forty-five. He held few offices; most of his speeches have perished, but his name is still honored throughout Mississippi, and Maine should never forget the son who amidst all his triumphs in distant states never forgot her. [L. C. H.]

GEORGE PALMER PUTNAM, founder of the publishing house of George Putnam's Sons, New York, was born in Brunswick, Maine, February 7, 1814. He received his education in Maine, but his first introduction into business was in Norwich, Connecticut, where he was employed for four years in a carpet house. He then went to New York City, where he was employed in the then famous book store of G. W. Bleecker; his salary was \$25 a year and his board. In 1830 he entered the book store of Daniel & Jonathan Leavitt. Here he first began his literary work by undertaking the compilation of his "Index to Universal History" which appeared in its first edition in a small duodecimo volume, but subsequently developed later into a large size octavo known to the later generations of book buyers as "The World's Progress," which continues to have a steady sale. At this period Mr. Putnam started a trade paper called the "Book-sellers' Advertiser," which is regarded as the father of the book-trade journals of to-day.

In 1836 Mr. Putnam entered the firm of Wiley & Long, which at that

time did business in Nassau street, New York, being engaged more particularly in the importation of books, but soon assumed a prominent part in the management of the affairs of the house, and was sent to Europe to look after its interests there. While in London he formed connections with authors, publishers, and booksellers, of the greatest value and importance to the house, and after a brief visit to America, returned to the British capital to establish an agency in that city. While in London in 1840, he published a little work entitled "American Facts," which was written for the purpose of answering criticisms respecting America and Americans, which were then being circulated in England. As junior member of the firm of Wiley & Putnam, Mr. Putnam continued from 1837 to 1847 to conduct the English branch of their house, and in 1848 returned to New York, dissolved partnership with Mr. Wiley, and began business for himself. His first establishment was at 155 Broadway, now far downtown, and here he began the publication of the works of Washington Irving, and of other distinguished authors. It was in Mr. Putnam's office that Edgar A. Poe completed the writing of his essay "Eureka," out of which both his publisher and himself confidently expected to make a great deal of money, but of which in the course of two years only about 750 copies were sold. It was in 1848, the first year of Mr. Putnam's personally undertaking the business, that he published James Russell Lowell's poem, "The Fable for Critics," which was issued anonymously. Here also was brought forth the first volume published by Bayard Taylor, a collection of letters to the New York "Tribune" during his first trip to Europe in 1844 to 1846, entitled "Views Afoot; or, Europe Seen with Knapsack and Staff." Six editions were sold during the first year. From 155 Broadway, Mr. Putnam removed to 10 Park place, where in 1853, aided by George William Curtis and others, he established "Putnam's Monthly," the first literary periodical to give a distinctive character to American literature of that kind. In 1854 John W. Leslie was admitted to the firm, which now became G. P. Putnam & Co., and the store was removed to 321 Broadway. Further removals were made to 532 Broadway, and in 1861 to 506 Broadway. In 1861 Mr. Putnam planned and organized "The Loyal Publication Society." In 1863 he retired for a time from active business, being appointed United States Collector of Internal Revenue, a position which he continued to fill until 1866, when he associated with him in business his son, George Haven Putnam, and the firm became G. P. Putnam & Son, the establishment being once more removed to 661 Broadway, the firm name being altered to G. P. Putnam & Sons, and in 1875 another removal was made to Fifth avenue, just below 32d street, where the firm remained until 1881, when it took possession of its present quarters, 27-29 West 23d street and 7 West 24th street, with a length of fifty feet, and a depth of 200 feet. Since 1872, the style of the firm has been G. P. Putnam's Sons, and their London house has headquarters opposite the establishment of the Macmillans.

Mr. George P. Putnam was always one of the leading men among publishers not of New York only, but of the United States. He was for many years secretary of the Publishers' Association, and always interested himself in public and political matters, in art and science. He was one of the founders of the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York, of which he was for a time honorary superintendent. In connection with the Exposition at Vienna of 1873, he received the appointment of chairman of the American committee on art, but died before being able to assume the position. Besides his works already mentioned, Mr. Putnam published: "Tours in Europe: A Concise Guide with Memoranda of a Tour in 1836" (1838); "American Book Circular with Notes and Statistics" (1843), and "A Pocket Memorandum Book in France, Italy and Germany in 1847" (1848). Mr. Putnam occupied in his relation as a publisher to authors in the country, very much the same position that was held by the elder John Murray to the great British writers. The works of Irving, Cooper, Bayard Taylor, Curtis, Bryant, Poe, Lowell, and many other eminent American authors, all first appeared through the publishing house of George P. Putnam and during his lifetime. At quite an early period of his publishing career, he interested himself in issuing fine illustrated books, and was a pioneer in that direction. He was also one of the earliest Americans to speak and write in favor of international copyright, publishing as early as 1837 the first argument in that direction issued in this country. Wiley & Putnam purchased for Mr. James Lenox for \$5,000 at an auction sale at Sotheby's in London the only copy of the celebrated "Mazarin" Bible in this country. Mr. Putnam's personal character and his courteous and genial manners made him a general favorite among all who knew him, and his acquaintances in the book trade, both in America and Europe, and among the leading authorities of all countries, was unexcelled by any gentleman in his business. Mr. Putnam died in New York City December 20, 1872.

FRANKLIN SIMMONS, Sculptor, was born at Webster, Maine, January 11, 1839, son of Loring and Dorothy (Batchelder) Simmons.

During his infancy his parents removed to Bath, where he attended school, and first manifested his passion for art. When he was about thirteen, his parents removed to Lewiston, and his studies were continued there. Later he entered Bates College and continued his classical education. There were then few works of sculpture to be seen in New England, and the opportunities for an art education were meagre, but the enthusiasm of the young artist and his taste for portraiture brought him encouragement. He opened a studio in Portland where he modeled some portrait busts and began his first statue, that of Major-General Berry, for Rockland. The winter of 1865-66 he spent in Washington, D. C., where the members of Lincoln's cabinet and about forty leading officers of the Civil War sat to him for life-size medallions, which were cast in bronze.

Among his sitters were: Secretaries Seward, Chase and Wells, Attorney-General Speed, Generals Grant, Sherman, Meade, Sheridan, Hooker, Burnside, Banks, Butler and Custer, and Admirals Farragut and Porter. In 1867, being commissioned by the State of Rhode Island to execute a statue of Roger Williams for the national capitol, he went to Europe, and the close of 1868 found him and his young wife settled in Rome. Here he worked in his studio by day, and drew from life at the English Academy in the evening. His first works produced in Rome were the statue of Williams; the group, "Grief and History," which crowns the Peace monument in Washington; and the ideal conception, "Jochabed with the Infant Moses," which was ordered in marble by William S. Appleton, of Boston, before the model was quite completed. After the death of his wife in 1872, he returned to the United States, but on receiving several important commissions, again went to Rome, and henceforth made the city his home though he frequently visited America. The commissions were for a marble statue of William King, first Governor of Maine, ordered by the State Legislature, for Statuary Hall at Washington; a bronze statue of Roger Williams for Providence, Rhode Island; and one of Edward Little for Auburn, Maine. Mr. Simmons was selected by the American Minister in Paris, Hon. Whitelaw Reid, to inspect and accept for the United States Government the Lafayette monument executed by two French sculptors. On his arrival in Washington an order from Congress for an equestrian monument of General Logan was given to him. This is made entirely of bronze, the pedestal being decorated with life-size figures in high relief. It stands in the Iowa circle in Washington. On May 19, 1900, with imposing ceremonies, Mr. Simmons' statue of General Grant was unveiled in the rotunda of the capitol. The statue, of heroic size and carved from marble, was a gift to the nation from the Grand Army of the Republic. Mr. Simmons sculptured about one hundred portrait busts in marble, besides many in bronze, and fifteen public monuments; among the latter, not previously mentioned, are the statue of Longfellow, and the Soldiers' monument, Portland, Maine; and the bronze statue of Oliver P. Morton, Indianapolis. Among the ideal works he has executed may be mentioned: "The Young Medusa," "Penelope," "Galatea," "The Seraph Abdiel," "Benjamin in Egypt," "The Hymn of Praise," and "Paris and Helen." Some of these have been produced in marble many times. Mr. Simmons received the degree of A.M. from Bowdoin College, Waterville University, and Bates College, and several decorations from the king of Italy, by whom he was knighted in 1898. His chief honor is that of Commendatore of the Order of the Crown of Italy.

He was married a second time, June 9, 1892, to the Baroness Von Jenisen, daughter of John Francis Slocum, of Providence, Rhode Island. Mr. Simmons died on December 8, 1913.

SEBA SMITH, Humorist, "was born (on September 14, 1792), in a log house put up by his father in the woods of Buckfield. When he was ten

years old the family removed to Bridgton, where he grew up working hard, sometimes on a farm, sometimes in a grocery, sometimes in a brick-yard, and sometimes in an iron foundry. At eighteen he had made so good use of his scanty opportunities for learning as to be employed in teaching school. He went to the new academy in Bridgton, and Mr. Cushman, perceiving his talents, put the idea of college in his head. A kind Portland gentleman offered to loan the money for his expenses, and so he went. In college he was frugal, industrious and highly successful, graduating with the first honor in the best class which Bowdoin had then seen." He taught in Portland for a year, travelled for his health both at home and in England, and spent four years with the "Eastern Argus," first as assistant and then as part owner. He then sold out, but soon started a small paper of his own, the "Portland Daily Courier," the first daily published east of Boston. Its success was largely due to the "Letters of Major Jack Downing," written by the editor.

Unfortunately Mr. Smith after seven good years engaged in land speculations which failed disastrously, and he was obliged to sell "The Courier." He went South as agent for a brother-in-law who had invented a machine for separating cotton from the seed. "The enterprise failed and in January, 1839, he landed in New York, as poor as when he started in life, with the added care of wife and children. He turned again to his pen, Mrs. Smith coming bravely to the rescue, and carrying perhaps more than her end of the yoke." Mr. Smith continued contributing to magazines, editing them and writing books until his death on July 29, 1868. Professor A. S. Packard said of him in the "History of Bowdoin": "The years have dealt gently with Mr. Smith. His has been a life of toil, not unattended with disappointment and care; but a calm temperament has neutralized their corrosive power. To me he looks much as he did on that far off summer eve, when in the little old wooden chapel I heard him read before the Theological Society his beautiful poem of 'The Nazarene.'"

Mr. Smith's sole claim to recollection is as an author, but like many other authors he misjudged the relative value of his own works. He regarded all the rest as trifling compared to his "New Elements of Geometry." "This work was the result of three years devoted to the subject, with intense application, during which he worked in the ancient Greek method, by rule and compass and arithmetical calculations." He firmly believed that he had discovered many new and important truths in geometry, but the mathematical world has pronounced otherwise. But a part of the fame which Mr. Smith failed to obtain as a mathematician he won as a humorist. Reference has already been made to the "Letters of Major Jack Downing." In these Seba Smith established his position as the pathfinder in that long line of American humorists, whose fun is made up of a combination of bad grammar and spelling with real shrewdness, wit and irony, the whole brought to bear on the politics and politicians of the day. Smith was not the equal of Nasby or Mr. Dooley, but he belongs in their pleasant company.

Jack Downing, a green young countryman, comes to Portland during the struggle for the governorship in 1830 and writes accounts of what he sees to his relatives at home. As the letters satirized both parties they were received with delight by both. Their popularity was at first merely local, but Mr. Smith soon sent Jack to Washington, made him a confidant of President Jackson and his companion on the President's New England tour. The letters now dealt with national matters and their reputation spread far and wide. They were quoted, criticised and parodied and some unscrupulous person wrote a new set purporting to be by the original Downing. In 1833 the letters were published with an autobiography, in book form, with the title "The Life and Writings of Major Jack Downing of Downingville, Away Down East, In the State of Maine. Written by Himself."

They were subsequently republished with additional letters under the title of 'My Thirty Years Out of the Senate, by Major Jack Downing.' Mr. Smith also published a collection of short stories called "Way Down East; or Portraits of Yankee Life."

Mr. Smith married Elizabeth Oakes Prince, who was born at Yarmouthville, Maine, on August 12, 1806. She obtained considerable reputation as a writer, producing numerous novels and poems and two plays. She was an ardent advocate of women's rights, was the first American woman to appear on the lecture platform, preached in various churches, and was for a time pastor of an independent church at Canastota, New York. Although on good terms with her husband, she declined to bear his name and was known as Mrs. Oaksmith, and her sons were given that name by legislative enactment. Mrs. Oaksmith died at Hollywood, S. C., in 1893. [L. C. H.]

HARRIET ELIZABETH (Prescott) SPOFFORD, Author, was born in Calais, Maine, April 3, 1835, the daughter of Sarah Bridges and Joseph N. Prescott. Her father went to the Pacific coast in 1849 and left his family in the Maine home for several years. He was one of the founders of Oregon City, and served for three terms as its mayor, before returning East. Harriet Elizabeth was descended, on both the maternal and paternal sides, from old New England stock, and was raised among the pine forests of Maine, and grew up a hardy, active child, laying the foundation of a constitution, the like of which few American women can boast.

When she was fourteen years old she was sent to Newburyport to attend school, and placed in charge of her aunt, Mrs. Betton. She entered the Putnam Free School at that place, and won the prize for the best essay on Hamlet, her study attracted the attention of Thomas Wentworth Higginson, who immediately became her friend and rendered her valuable assistance by his advice and encouragement. She was graduated from the Putnam School, and completed her education at Pinkerton Academy, Derry, New Hampshire, to which place her mother had removed with her family.

In the midst of his labors her father had been stricken with paralysis, and lingered for twenty years, an invalid; her mother also became an invalid soon after, and never recovered her health. Harriet Elizabeth, being the eldest child, was early obliged to make use of her talents, and before she had completed her course at Pinkerton Academy she began to write for the story papers, and worked persistently for meagre compensation. Her writings of this time have never been collected, and are doubtless unknown save to her immediate family. Her first work that attracted attention was "In a Cellar," published in the "Atlantic Monthly" (1858-59). James Russell Lowell was then editor of the magazine, and although the story pleased him greatly, he would not publish it for some time, under the impression that it must be a translation from the French. Being assured that it was an original production of Harriet Prescott, he published the tale. It established her reputation, and made her from that time a welcome contributor to the leading periodicals in America, both in prose and verse.

In 1865, after long years of engagement, she was married to Richard S. Spofford, a lawyer, of Newburyport. She later turned her attention to writing articles outside of the realms of fiction. Her book on "Household and Decorative Art," first printed in "Harper's Bazar," is full of research and curious information, and she has also given to the public a series of vigorous articles upon the "Servant Question," and, under the pine-trees of her island home, has collected the fragmentary poems with which she sang herself into the hearts of an admiring public in her stories. She has published during her literary career no less than ten books. Among the more prominent are: "Sir Rohan's Ghost" (Boston, 1859); "The Amber Gods, and Other Stories" (Boston, 1863); "Azarian" (1864); "New England Legends" (1871); "Marquis of Carabas" (Boston, 1882); "Poems" (1882), and "Ballads About Authors" (1888).

MRS. LILIAN M. N. STEVENS was born at Dover, Maine, on May 1, 1844. She was the daughter of Nathaniel and Nancy Fowler Ames. She was educated at Foxcroft Academy and Westbrook Seminary and taught for some years. In 1865 she married Michael Stevens. In 1874 she assisted Miss Willard to organize the Maine branch of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union. In 1894 she was made vice-president-at-large of the national body and in 1898 succeeded Miss Willard as president. She also engaged in much charitable and reform work in her home in Portland, Maine and was an ardent advocate of Woman's Suffrage. In 1892 Mrs. Stevens was appointed one of the lady managers of the world's fair. Mrs. Stevens died on April 6, 1914. [L. C. H.]

NATHANIEL PARKER WILLIS, Poet and Journalist, was born in Portland, Maine, January 20, 1806. His father and grandfather were journalists, and during the Revolutionary War his grandfather published in Boston, Massachusetts, a Whig newspaper, the "Independent Chronicle." He subsequently removed to the West, and edited a number of journals in different



BIRTHPLACE OF MRS. LILLIAN M. N. STEVENS (DOVER)

places. Willis's father, born in Boston, in 1780, assisted his grandfather in newspaper work, acting as a practical printer, a trade at which N. P. Willis himself served a year's apprenticeship. In 1816 the Boston "Recorder" (now the "Congregationalist and Boston Recorder"), was established by his father, who also founded the "Youth's Companion" in 1872.

The family removed from Portland to Boston when Willis was but six years old, and his birthplace seems to have had but little place in his memory. His home life was that of the usual Puritan family, although unusually rich in domestic affection. His father was for twenty years a deacon in Park Street Church (Congregational), otherwise known as "Brimstone Corner." His mother, Hannah Parker, was born at Holliston, Massachusetts, in 1778, and for her Willis cherished an unusually deep and devoted affection; from her he inherited his emotional and bright nature. There were nine of the Willis children, Nathaniel being the second, and a sister, Sarah Payson, better known as "Fanny Fern," gained considerable reputation as a writer of children's stories. Richard Storrs Willis, his youngest brother, is known as a poet and musical composer.

Willis attended the Boston Latin School and fitted for Yale at Andover Academy, from which he was graduated in 1827. It has justly been said that college life left a more enduring impress upon Willis than upon almost any other American writer. During his college course he contributed verses to the "Recorder," the "Youth's Companion," the "New York Review, and Athenaeum Magazine" (Bryant's new magazine), Goodrich's "Token," and many other periodicals. It was at this time that his scriptural poems began to appear in the poet's corner of the Boston "Recorder," under the name of "Roy." These were greatly admired, and have done more than any of his writings to make his memory lasting. His literary success gave him the *entree* to the best society in New Haven, and his natural social gifts soon made him a general favorite. Willis was something of a dandy, besides being a great admirer of pretty women, and devoted himself more to society than to college affairs. In after years he found the background for many of his best stories in this early social experience. After graduation he naturally adopted the profession of letters. In Boston he entered into an editorial engagement with Samuel G. Goodrich ("Peter Parley"), who published the "Legendary," and the "Token," two illustrated annuals. Goodrich had already published Willis's "Sketches" in 1827, and had said of him that "before he was twenty-five he was more read than any other poet of his time." In 1829 Willis started the "American Monthly Magazine," which lived for two years and a half, and was then merged into the "New York Mirror," with N. P. Willis, George P. Morris, and Theodore S. Fay as editors. The journal was devoted to literature, the fine arts, and society. In 1831 Willis went abroad as foreign correspondent for the paper, under agreement to write weekly letters at \$10 a letter. The result of this European trip was most fortunate, as far as his literary success was concerned, for it furnished him with the stimulus and supply upon which he

was always most dependent. Having many letters of introduction, he had the fortune to meet many notable people in a familiar way, which resulted in his being formally attached to the embassy of William C. Rives, then United States Minister to the Court of France. This gave Willis the *entree* to the court circle of whatever country he visited, and was of the greatest service to him. He traveled through Europe and Asia Minor, and his "Pencilings by the Way" were fully recorded in the "Mirror," and were very popular in America. In London he became a sort of social lion, and there was noted as a man of elegant manners and extreme fashion in dress. His descriptions of dinners, balls, soirees, garden parties and the opera were largely read. In 1837 he married Mary Stace, daughter of General William Stace, the Royal Ordnance Storekeeper, at Woolwich Arsenal, and soon they sailed for America. While in Europe, Willis contributed to "Blackwood's" and other magazines, besides publishing "Melanie" and other poems.

He was severely criticised for abusing the hospitality of his friends in making merchandise of the private conversations and opinions he had heard, and much unpleasantness resulted. The "Slingsby Papers; or Inkblings of Adventure," published in 1836, were very clever.

Willis and his wife in 1837 made their home at "Glenmary," near Owego, New York, and the "Letters from Under a Bridge," written at this time, are considered his best work. After this he wrote a number of plays which met with some success. In 1839 Willis visited England on business, where he met Thackeray and engaged him as a contributor to the "Corsair," a weekly journal in which he was interested at that time. In 1840, on his return to America, he found a ready market for his writings, being at this time "beyond a doubt the most popular, the best paid, and in every way the most successful magazinist that America had yet seen." In 1844, after the death of his wife, he again sailed for England in search of change and health, where he did a great deal of writing. In 1846, while abroad, he married Cornelia Grinnell, the niece and adopted daughter of Joseph Grinnell, Congressman from New Bedford, Massachusetts. On their return to America they made their home at "Idlewild," near Cornwall-on-the-Hudson. Willis still kept up his connection with the "Mirror," which he and Morris had managed under various names, for over twenty years. The name it then bore was the "Home Journal." For some ten years Willis was a well known figure in New York, where he was much sought after. His connection with the famous Forrest divorce suit, and his reputed admiration for the fair sex, gave color to the report that he was something of a profligate, but there was not the slightest proof of such an accusation. His health failing during these years he took a southern trip, writing continually for his paper. At the outbreak of the Civil War, he went to Washington as its war correspondent. A large number of subscribers to the "Home Journal" fell off after the war, so that Willis found himself much straitened, and his last years were something of a financial struggle. The best

estimate of Willis is to be found in Lowell's "Fable for Critics." It has been said of him by his kinsman, Dr. Richard S. Storrs, "He will be remembered as a man eminently human, with almost unique endowments; devoting much rare powers to insignificant purposes, and curiously illustrating the fine irony of nature, by which she often lavishes one of her choice productions on inferior ends."

He died at "Idlewild," January 20, 1867, on his sixty-first birthday, and was buried at Mt. Auburn, near Boston, Massachusetts. Among his pallbearers were Longfellow, Lowell and Holmes. [L. C. H.]

There are persons who should not be entirely passed over in an account of Maine worthies, yet of whom any extended notice might be inappropriate here, because their connection with the State was comparatively slight or their fame chiefly local. There were three graduates of Maine colleges who attained great prominence in the political world but who were never citizens of Maine—Franklin Pierce, John P. Hale and Benjamin F. Butler.

FRANKLIN PIERCE was born at Hillsboro, New Hampshire, on November 23, 1804. His father, Benjamin Pierce, had been an officer of the Revolution and Governor of the State. Franklin Pierce entered Bowdoin before he had completed his sixteenth year and, as was pardonable in so young a boy and one of a lively and social disposition, he for some time failed to use his opportunities. Hawthorne says in his life of Pierce:

"The consequence was that when the relative standing of the members of the class was first authoritatively ascertained, in the junior year, he found himself occupying precisely the lowest position in point of scholarship. In the first mortification of wounded pride, he resolved never to attend another recitation, and accordingly absented himself from college exercises of all kinds for several days, expecting and desiring that some form of punishment, such as suspension or expulsion, would be the result. The faculty of the college, however, with a wise lenity, took no notice of this behavior; and at last, having had time to grow cool, and moved by the grief of his friend Little and another classmate, Pierce determined to resume the routine of college duties. 'But,' said he to his friends, 'if I do so, you shall see a change!'

"Accordingly from that time forward, he devoted himself to study. His mind, having run wild for so long a period, could be reclaimed only by the severest efforts of an iron resolution; and for three months afterwards, he rose at four in the morning, toiled all day over his books, and retired only at midnight, allowing himself but four hours for sleep. With habit and exercise, he acquired command over his intellectual powers, and was no longer under the necessity of application so intense. But from the moment when he made his resolve until the close of his college life, he never incurred a censure, never was absent (and then unavoidably) but from two college exercises, never went into the recitation room without a thorough acquaintance with the subject to be recited, and finally graduated as the third scholar of his class. Nothing save the low standard of his previous scholarship prevented his taking a yet higher rank."

"Hawthorne, "Life of Franklin Pierce," Appendix.

After graduation, Pierce studied law. He failed at first as he did in college, but ultimately gained a high position at the New Hampshire bar. He served from 1833 to 1837 in the National House of Representatives and in 1837 was elected to the Senate, where he had the somewhat embarrassing distinction of being the youngest member. After a single term he returned to the practice of law. In 1846 he declined the position of Attorney General, which was offered him by President Polk. He soon, however, volunteered for service in the Mexican War and did very creditable work. After the war he returned to the bar, and in 1852 received the nomination of the Democrats for President as a compromise candidate when all the leaders had failed. His success was largely due to the quiet management of his college friend, ex-Senator Bradbury. His campaign life was written by an even closer friend, Nathaniel Hawthorne. The President did not forget his biographer, and appointed him to one of the most lucrative offices in his gift, that of Consul at Liverpool, to the disappointment doubtless of Governor Hubbard, who desired the place. The appointment, however, was not a purely spontaneous act on Pierce's part; like Emerson, the gentle Hawthorne had his share of Yankee shrewdness. He wrote to his friend and publisher, Ticknor, "I enclose you a letter for the Emperor Frank, which I hope you will deliver in person, and follow up its arguments with any better ones that may occur to yourself. The General means well, but it would be a pity if he should be led into doing a wrong thing as regards that consulship."³⁸

Pierce's presidency was not happy for his fame. Though an able man, he had to deal with men stronger than himself; he consented to the repeal of the Missouri Compromise, maintained the "border-ruffian" legislature in Kansas, and left office scorned in the North as the tool of the slave power. The Civil War increased his unpopularity. When in 1863 Hawthorne wished to dedicate a book to Pierce, the publisher protested. Hawthorne replied, "I find that it would be a piece of poltroonery in me to withdraw the dedication or the dedicatory letter. . . . If Pierce is so exceedingly unpopular that his name is enough to sink the volume, there is so much the more need that an old friend should stand by him. I cannot, merely on account of pecuniary profit or literary reputation, go back from what I have deliberately felt and thought it right to do." The letter does honor to both the friends.

Pierce died after some years of ill health on October 8, 1869. [L. C. H.]

JOHN P. HALE—A son of New Hampshire frequently brought into close relations with Pierce, but of entirely different views, was John P. Hale. He was born at Rochester, New Hampshire. His mother was one of the O'Brien family of Machias, distinguished in the capture of the *Margaretta*. He was educated at Phillips Exeter and Bowdoin, graduating

³⁸Ticknor, "Hawthorne and His Publisher," 38.

in 1827. While in college he gave no sign of his future success except "a passion for mock law cases and for making speeches." After graduating he was admitted to the bar, went into politics, was elected to the National House, and was nominated for another term. But in 1845 he wrote a public letter strongly opposing the annexation of Texas, and a second convention annulled his nomination. He then ran independently, and four elections were held without result. But in a coalition of Whigs and Independent Democrats sent him to the United States Senate, and he retained his seat, with an interval of two years, from 1853 to 1865. President Lincoln then appointed him Minister to Spain, which office he held for five years. He returned home with health seriously impaired, and died on November 19, 1873. Pierce and Hale were fellow collegians for a year, and at first friends and allies in politics, but Pierce took the lead in annulling Hale's nomination and there was a sharp debate between them in a meeting at Concord, in which both highly distinguished themselves, and which was a potent factor in making Hale Senator and Pierce President. The old friendship, however, was gone and later President Pierce openly turned his back on Hale at a public reception.

John P. Hale had the distinction of being the first anti-slavery Senator, and stood alone for two years until Salmon P. Chase and Sumner joined him. He warred steadily against extravagance and graft and by long continued effort secured the abolition of flogging and of the spirit ration in the navy. He was a fair, courageous fighter, always ready to stand up for his cause, cool-headed, and with a sense of humor and a power of retort that made him very formidable in debate. As was the case with Pierce, his last office injured his fame. By neither taste, experience, or ability was he fitted for diplomatic work; he was not a good judge of character and he became involved in some very unfortunate transactions. [L. C. H.]

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN BUTLER was born at Deerfield, New Hampshire, on November 5, 1818. He had the opportunity of going to West Point, but relinquished it at the desire of his mother, a strict Baptist, who feared for the purity of her boy's faith at a place where she was informed there was much free-thinking. Accordingly he was sent to Colby, a Baptist college, where great pains were taken that the students should walk in the straight and narrow path. The most characteristic incident in young Benjamin's college career was the presentation of a petition to the faculty that he might be excused from attending chapel on the ground that it was practically certain that he would go to hell, and that if he went despite religious instruction, he would be condemned to the greater torment. A professor had given the per cent. of damned souls as very high, and Butler showed that on this basis, taking instructors and students together, at least some of the faculty must be damned, and he respectfully argued that he could not be saved rather than one of his holy instructors.

A supremely clever man, Butler won great success as an advocate, a

politician, and as a military governor if not as a general. His career was too varied to be traced even in outline here. It was condemned by many of the purest men in the country; on the other hand it is alleged that he was the victim of class prejudice. His Civil War correspondence, with liberal extracts from contemporary newspapers, has recently been published, and the reviewer in the "American Historical Review" thinks that some of the most serious charges against him are shown to be unjust, and that in his famous quarrel with Governor Andrew he was almost wholly right.

[L. C. H.]

Interesting sketches might be written of various Maine judges, but they would swell a chapter already sufficiently long; moreover, the subject has been treated at considerable length in a series of articles by General Charles Hamlin in the "Green Bag" for 1915. Two judges, however, have special claims to notice in a history of Maine—Messrs. Mellen and Ware.

PRENTISS MELLEN, the first Chief Justice of Maine and the first resident of Maine to enter the United States Senate, was born in Sterling, Massachusetts, on October 11, 1764. His father, John Mellen, was a highly respected clergyman and a graduate of Harvard. His mother, Rebecca Prentiss, was of a family known for its wit and brilliance. Prentiss was fitted for college by his father and graduated in 1784. In 1788 he was admitted to the bar and practiced for about four years in Massachusetts and New Hampshire. In July, 1792, he moved to Biddeford. He afterwards said: "I opened my office in one of old Squire Hooper's front chambers, in which were then arranged *three beds* and half a table and one chair. My clients had the privilege of sitting on some of the beds. In this room I slept, as did also sundry travellers frequently, the house being a tavern." He, however, built up a practice that extended throughout the District. In 1806 he moved to Portland and measured himself successfully against the leaders of the Cumberland bar which, according to William Willis, was often said to be the best in Massachusetts. He served in the council, was elected a Senator from Massachusetts, and served until the admission of Maine.

In July, 1820, he was appointed Chief Justice of the new State and served until 1834, when he became constitutionally disqualified, having reached the age of seventy. In 1838 he was appointed chairman of a committee to revise and codify the laws. The report was submitted on January 1, 1840. It embraced the whole body of the public statute law in one hundred and seventy-eight chapters, under twelve titles. This was adopted by the Legislature, and constituted the first volume of the Revised Statutes.

"Judge Mellen calmly and serenely yielded up his life on the last day of the year 1840, in the midst of his own winter, having passed through seventy-six years of a busy, well-spent life; firm in the conviction of an approval by the great Judge of quick and dead."



PRENTISS MELLEN

The most characteristic quality of Judge Mellen, at once a strength and a weakness, was his eager rapidity of thought. Mr. Willis says:

"At the bar, Mr. Mellen's manner was fervid and impassioned; his countenance lighted up with brilliancy and intelligence; his perceptions were rapid, and his mind leaped to conclusions to which other minds more slowly travelled, and as a consequence he was sometimes obliged to yield his suddenly formed opinions to more mature reflection. On one occasion Chief Justice Parsons remarked to him when he was ardently pressing a point, 'you are aware, Mr. Mellen, that there are authorities on the other side?' 'Yes, yes, your Honor, but they are all in my favor.'

"He identified himself with the cause of his client, and never for a moment neglected it, or failed to improve every opportunity in his opponent's weakness or errors, to secure a victory. His voice was musical, his person tall and imposing, and his manner fascinating. On the bench his thorough knowledge of practice, his familiarity with decided cases, and his quick perception of the points and merits of a case, were peculiarly valuable at a time when the new State was forming its system of jurisprudence, and establishing rules for its future government. The industry and ability with which he discharged his arduous and important duties, while at the head of our highest court, appears forcibly written in the first eleven volumes of the Maine reports.

"Nor were those decisions of a light or hasty kind; many of them involved points of the highest importance, requiring profound study, nice discrimination and keen analysis. It may not be improper to say that in these opinions the learned Chief Justice did not fall behind his high reputation as a lawyer, nor of the elevated position which he occupied. And it is gratifying to be able to say that our reports were cited at that period, in other States with great respect.

"Never were stricter integrity, nor a more earnest desire to render exact justice in every case, carried to the bench; and no judge ever performed his duties more conscientiously. If any criticism may be permitted on a judicial course so pure and able, it might be said that there were times when the judge's patience gave way before the tedious prolixity of some advocates, who were unwilling to give the court credit for a knowledge of the elementary principles of law; or where witnesses were pertinaciously bent on telling all their experiences before coming to the point in hand. In such cases he would sometimes be obnoxious to the censure of the worthy Fuller, according to the canon of his 'good judge,' of whom he says, he is 'patient and attentive in hearing the pleading on both sides; and hearkens to the witnesses, though tedious. He may give a waking testimony who hath but a dreamy utterance; and many people must be impertinent before they can be pertinent and cannot give evidence about a hen, but first they must begin with it in the egg. All which our judge is contented to hearken to.' But we cannot say this always of our good Chief Justice; he could not sit still till this egg was hatched. In another aspect he, however, amply met this worthy's requirement: 'He nips those lawyers, who under a pretense of kindness to lend a witness some words, give him new matter, yea, clean contrary to what he intended.'"

| Judge Mellen had interests and tastes which one does not ordinarily expect in one learned in the law. He was first attracted to his wife by her musical ability, and throughout life he amused himself by writing verse. Two children inherited their father's extraprofessional tastes. Willis says:

"The oldest son, Grenville, a graduate of Harvard in the class of 1818, is well known as a literary man, flowering out from the legal profession; he died in 1841, at the age of forty-two. His son Frederick was educated at Bowdoin, from which he graduated in 1825; he prepared himself for the practice of law, but was seduced from it by the soft impeachment of art; he devoted himself to painting, but died in 1834 at the age of thirty, before accomplishing his high aspirations."^m [L. C. H.]

ASHUR WARE was born on February 10, 1782, at Sherburne, Massachusetts. He was a brother of Henry Ware, a Unitarian clergyman of considerable reputation, and father of ministers more distinguished than himself. Ashur graduated from Harvard in 1804 "in the same class with Dr. Chapin, Andrews Norton, the Biblical critic, and other men of nearly equal celebrity. He taught at Exeter, and in 1807 was made tutor in Greek at Harvard. He remained as tutor and professor until 1815." Among the four or five hundred youths who received instruction from him during this period, were Edward Everett, Peleg Sprague, the historians William H. Prescott, John G. Palfrey and George Bancroft, Presidents Sparks and Walker, and Caleb Cushing.

In 1815 Professor Ware resigned his position and, after for a while preparing himself to enter the ministry, studied law. He took great interest in politics, edited the "Boston Yankee," a Democratic paper, and attracted much attention by a brilliant and very partisan Fourth of July oration in 1815. In 1816 he delivered a similar one at Portland. In the same year he became a resident of Portland and editor of the "Eastern Argus." He was an active leader in the separation movement, and when Maine was admitted to the Union was appointed Secretary of State. Mr. George F. Talbot, in a sketch of Mr. Ware, says: "In the comparative rarity of highly educated men, and from the fact that the able first governor, King, had more reputation as a man of affairs and a natural ruler of men than of literary expertness, it has become manifest from some preserved correspondence that the first secretary, besides recording the statutes and engrossing the commissions, was called upon to put in decorous and devout language, fit to be read on Sunday from the pulpit, the Fast and Thanksgiving proclamations, by which the State continued to maintain some loose connection with the church."

In 1822, when Judge Parris resigned his position as United States Judge in the District of Maine, President Monroe appointed Ashur Ware to succeed him. "Judge Ware had been but six years at the bar, and was a lawyer without briefs; his business in the courts had been very limited; he had devoted himself to politics, which had superior attractions for him, over the law; his taste and his ambition had been turned in this direction; he had not the ease and freedom of public speaking requisite to make a good advocate, although he had the learning and ability to make a good

^mWillis, "Law, Courts and Lawyers of Maine," pp. 163-173.

lawyer, and happily for him and the public he fell into the right place. Or we may more properly say, being in the place, he most amply and happily qualified himself for it."

His especial work and one which gave him a national reputation was done in admiralty law. William Willis says: "The admiralty law in this State, when he entered upon his office, was in a crude and imperfect condition. There were no settled rules established in regard to it, and no public decisions to determine the law applicable to it, among us. To the task of evolving a logical and just system which should command the respect of foreign nations as well as our own, Judge Ware brought a mind trained and disciplined by hard study in metaphysics and geometry, a belief in the equality of all men and a burning indignation at injustice and oppression. He had also ready command of the tools he must use, and intellectual enjoyment in his work. His successor, Judge Fox, said of him:

"Judge Ware's literary acquirements were second to no man's in this district. He was conversant with the Greek and Latin, as well as with the French languages, and could thus investigate and examine for himself their authorities without depending on the assistance of others. His extensive acquaintance with the Roman law and the various French writers on commercial and admiralty law, is manifest in almost every one of his opinions, which we now possess. He most thoroughly enjoyed the investigation of questions of admiralty and maritime law, making the most diligent search and examination among the rules and sea laws of the antient marts of commerce, and he pursued his studies and explorations until he was complete master of the subject, so that nothing remained for him but to present his conclusions in that clear and beautiful manner which is so distinguishing a characteristic of all his opinions, and in which he has never been surpassed, either at home or abroad. Quite often his opinion was not restricted to a mere determination of the rights of the parties in the cause, but, conscious of the importance of his labors, and of the benefit to be derived from the knowledge he would thus impart, he made his opinion a most elaborate and finished exposition of the great principles of admiralty and maritime law involved in the matter in controversy, in relation to which, at that time, the entire profession was almost universally ignorant. So complete and thorough were his examinations, so convincing his judgments, that in many cases since his time, the most learned and eminent jurists have referred to them as conclusive authority on the questions he so well investigated, being convinced that their own researches would shed no new light upon a matter which had received the careful and diligent investigation of Judge Ware."¹⁸

[L. C. H.]

Mention may also be made of two eminent judges who began their practice in Maine. Theophilus Parsons, the famous Chief Justice of Massachusetts, taught in Falmouth, was admitted to the bar and began a successful practice, but the burning of Falmouth by Mowatt caused him to leave the District. William Cushing, Chief Justice of Massachusetts, from 1777 to 1789, and a Justice of the United States Supreme Court from 1789 to 1810, practiced in Maine from about 1760 to 1772. When he first came to

¹⁸Talbot, "Ashur Ware," *Coll. Me. Hist. Soc.*, II., I., pp. 409-421.

Maine he was the only educated lawyer there. He was a man of very dignified appearance, and retained the judicial wig when all his colleagues had discarded it.

Moses Greenleaf and Phineas Quimby were citizens of Maine. They are difficult to classify but are worthy of note:

MOSES GREENLEAF, "Maine's First Map Maker," was born in Newburyport, Massachusetts, on October 17, 1777, and was a brother of Simon Greenleaf (q. v.). He accompanied the family, except his brother Simon, to New Gloucester, Maine, in 1798. From 1799 to 1806 he carried on a mercantile business in various places. He also bought and sold wild lands in a small way. In 1806 he entered into a contract with Mr. William Dodd of Boston, owner of the township which later became the town of Williamsburg, by which in return for a fourth interest he agreed within four years to take up his residence in the township and act as Mr. Dodd's agent and manager. He engaged himself busily in the task of developing the township. He took part in the survey for, and was an earnest promoter of the building of an important road to the present Katahdin Iron Works. He probably discovered the existence of iron in the district, and certainly that of slate. He did his utmost to induce business men to develop these mines, but without success. He was much interested in the new idea of steam railroads, and was one of the incorporators of the first railroad company in Maine, the Bangor & Piscataquis Canal and Railroad Company. He was made a justice of the peace, a position like that of the present trial justice, he was later a justice of the common pleas and of the court of sessions, and was generally known as Judge Greenleaf.

But Mr. Greenleaf's chief work was his published description of Maine, particularly of the interior. On entering on his work at Williamsburg he found that while some persons considered the wild lands a source of untold wealth, and others believed them useless, neither party really knew anything of the matter. Mr. Greenleaf determined to ascertain "the quality of the lands, the portions best adapted to agriculture, the natural resources, and the accessibility of the same for settlement." Accordingly he devoted much time to journeys of examination, carried on an extensive correspondence, and in 1816 published his "Statistical View of Maine," accompanied by a map which he had prepared based partly on his own explorations, partly on previous maps. His book was of the greatest value in disseminating correct information, and it is thought to have done much to stimulate the movement for separation by showing how great were the resources of the District. In 1829 Mr. Greenleaf published a "Survey of the State of Maine." It traversed the ground of the former book but was more detailed and thorough "and devoted considerable space to the political economy and educational interests of the state, which were not touched upon in the "Statistical View." "Regarded as a whole this book is one of the most important works relating to Maine ever published, and exhibits the won-

derful fund of knowledge of which the author was possessed regarding the physical, political, and historical characteristics of the State of Maine. With the voluminous and accurate reports now issued yearly from the many State Departments, we can hardly realize the almost insurmountable difficulties encountered in preparing such a work as this, and especially in the compiling of the numerous statistical tables. Only a man possessed of indomitable energy, and with unswerving purpose, could have accomplished it, the first of its kind in the State." With this book Mr. Greenleaf issued a revised copy of the 1815 map, accompanied by six maps showing parts of the State or illustrating its development. There was also a meteorological diagram, the result of the most careful study. These maps were remarkably accurate, and were engraved in the finest manner, but unfortunately, notwithstanding assistance by the Legislature, Mr. Greenleaf lost heavily by his work. A full and interesting account of these maps may be found in Judge Smith's "Moses Greenleaf, Maine's First Map Maker," from which the material for this sketch is drawn.

Mr. Greenleaf died of erysipelas on March 20, 1834, in the fifty-seventh year of his age. "In personal appearance Mr. Greenleaf was little above the medium height, with an open, fair countenance, brown hair, dark hazel eyes, and prominent features. He was quick in action as well as in thought and speech, but never hurried. He gave one the impression of being a person who always knew just what and how to do a thing, under all circumstances. . . . Frank and accessible, genial and agreeable, fearless and honest, he was a man to be revered for his integrity and sterling worth, and to be particularly remembered by the people of Maine, for his unceasing labors in behalf of the development of the State."

[L. C. H.]

PHINEAS PARKHURST QUIMBY was born at Lebanon, New Hampshire, on February 16, 1802. His parents soon moved to Belfast, Maine, and gave him such education as was to be obtained in the town schools, and then apprenticed him to a clock maker. It was a wise choice. The boy inherited mechanical ability from his father, pursued the trade which he had learned, and himself devised "several mechanical appliances such as a steering apparatus for boats, a vise, an endless chain saw and a clock movement." About 1838 Mr. Quimby became interested in hypnotism. He discovered a sensitive "subject," and travelled with him for several years in Maine and New Brunswick. From the results of hypnotism and mesmerism in connection with the sick, he evolved a system of mental healing. He said, "My practice is unlike all medical practice. I give no medicine and make no outward applications. I tell the patient his troubles and what he thinks is his disease; and my explanation is the cure. If I succeed in correcting his errors, I change the fluids of the system and establish the truth, or health. The truth is the cure. He frequently called

*Smith, "Moses Greenleaf," pp. 33, 34.

his philosophy the science of health and happiness. In an article written in 1863 he uses the term Christian Science. One of his patients, a Dr. Evans, who published several volumes on the subject, first used the term "mental science" in 1869, and this is the term still used by a large class of practitioners." In 1859 Dr. Quimby established his headquarters at Portland the better to handle his growing business; but he retained his home in Belfast, and died there on January 16, 1866.

One of his patients was Mary Baker Eddy, and a sharp dispute has arisen as to how far she was indebted to Dr. Quimby for her doctrines. Mrs. Eddy's followers make this distinction: "Christian Science proclaims the unreality of matter and of the body, while Dr. Quimby admits the validity of the body as veritable expression, but recognizes its susceptibility to mental influence."²⁰ [L. C. H.]

Some literary works of national fame are closely connected with Maine. Harriet Beecher Stowe wrote "Uncle Tom's Cabin" in Brunswick, her husband, Calvin E. Stowe, then being Collins Professor of Natural and Revealed Religion at Bowdoin. The scenes of two of Mrs. Stowe's novels, "The Pearl of Orr's Island," an idyllic story of simple, quiet life; and "Old Town Folks," a story of clear, sharp characterization, are laid in Maine.

The "Youth's Companion," as was said above, was founded by a former resident of Maine, Nathaniel Willis, and it has been largely, and in other ways than its origin, a contribution of Maine to literature. "In its editorial management and among its contributors Maine names have always been conspicuous. For a full generation its editorial head was Edward Stanwood of Augusta, eminent writer of history and biography and an authority on political and economic subjects; and for an even longer period its best loved story writer has been C. A. Stevens of Norway Lake. A score of other well known Maine names are high on its roll of editors and contributors. Its first subscriber was a Maine girl; and only last year [this was written in 1817], a Maine man died who had been continuously a subscriber for ninety years"—probably a record without a parallel on the subscription lists of any other periodical. And through all the years since Nathaniel Willis founded "The Companion" in 1827 it has been printed on paper made by the same Maine mill."²¹ [L. C. H.]

It is also of interest to note that Samuel F. Smith, the author of "America," was for seven years pastor of a Waterville church and Acting Professor of Modern Languages at Colby.

There are various minor poets of Maine who have written graceful verse, with a few poems of real beauty and pathos, such as Mrs. Moore of

²⁰Cyclopaedia of American Biography," Articles, "Eddy" and "Quimby."

²¹Edward Robie, a brother of Governor Robie.

²²John C. Minot, in an unpublished address delivered before the Maine Library Association.

Thomaston, who wrote the poem (not the hymn) "Rock of Ages Cleft for Me," and Mrs. Mace of Bangor, the author of "Only Waiting." Mrs. Mace has also written several poems on Maine subjects such as the "Bangor Centennial Hymn," "Kineo," "Norumbega," and the "Bowdoin Oak." There is also Moses Owen, whose poem on the Civil War flags in the State House at Augusta has stirred thousands, and whose appeal is peculiarly strong today:

THE RETURNED MAINE BATTLE FLAGS

Nothing but flags—but simple flags,
Tattered and torn and hanging in rags;
And we walk beneath them with careless tread,
Nor think of the hosts of the mighty dead,
That have marched beneath them in days gone by,
With a burning cheek, and a kindling eye,
And have bathed their folds with their young life's tide,
And dying, blessed them, and blessing, died.

Nothing but flags—yet, methinks, at night,
They tell each other their tales of fright!
And dim spectres come, and their thin arms twine
'Round each standard torn—as they stand in line.
As the word is given—they charge! they form!
And the dim hall rings with the battle's storm;
And once again, through the smoke and strife,
Those colors lead to a Nation's life.

Nothing but flags—yet they're bathed with tears:
They tell of triumphs—of hopes—of fears;
Of a mother's prayers—of a boy away,
Of a serpent crushed—of the coming day;
Silent they speak—and the tear will start,
As we stand beneath them with throbbing heart,
And think of those who are ne'er forgot,
Their flags come home—why come they not?

Nothing but flags—yet we hold our breath,
And gaze with awe at those types of death;
Nothing but flags—yet the thought will come,
The heart must pray though the lips be dumb!
They are sacred, pure, and we can see no stain
On those dear loved flags come home again;
Baptized in blood, our purest, best,
Tattered and torn, they're now at rest.



Chapter XXXI
SUMMER RESORTS IN MAINE



SCENE AT MOOSEHEAD LAKE



KENNEBEC RIVER SCENE



A MAINE SCENE IN 1820

CHAPTER XXXI

SUMMER RESORTS IN MAINE

During the last quarter, or possibly one should say the last half, of the nineteenth century, Maine developed a new industry—she became a vacation State. For such a position she possessed almost unique advantages. At least one of three things is usually desired by the jaded city dweller often seeking relief from intolerable heat—the ocean, mountains, woods. Maine has them all. Especially may she glory in her coast and her forests.

Of the former, R. H. Schauffler says in his "Romantic America," that Maine has "the one place on our Atlantic coast, where nature combines her two chief inspirations, the mountains and the sea. The Maine coast has character sharply distinguished from the duller, more blandly sandy rims of the other Atlantic States. Indeed, among the shores of the seven seas with one exception (the Pacific coast near Monterey) I know of no other coastful of rocks and rock-pools so colorful, so fascinatingly molded, so ready with poetic suggestion; no other coastful of sand and seaweed so fragrant¹."

The natural method of visiting the coast is to proceed upward from southwest to northeast, and this also has great advantages from the aesthetic point of view. Mr. E. P. Morris in an article in the *Yale Review* for 1916, "Along the Maine Coast," says: "Nature arranged this shore in a dramatic mood, with a definite purpose, intending it to be properly approached and to disclose itself in a series of episodes leading up to a climax—Penobscot Bay and the region of Mt. Desert." Mr. Morris also says that when you have sailed into Kittery Harbor you have not merely crossed a State line, you have entered into a new kind of life. The harbor is full of fishermen to whom fishing is not a sport but a means of livelihood, and a summer hotel tells of another flourishing Maine business. Mr. Morris begins his Maine trip at Kittery, but from a legal point of view he should have made his first stop at the northern half of the Isles of Shoals. These are rocky islets opposite the coast where Maine and New Hampshire join. The boundary line runs through the group; to Maine belong the islands of Appledore, formerly Hog Island, so called from its resemblance to a hog's back; Smutty Nose, named from a long dangerous spit of rock; Malaga, Cedar and Duck. The islands are little more than masses of rock, almost without soil or animal or vegetable life. In what then consists the charm which has drawn thither thousands of summer visitors who saved the islands from total depopulation when the fishery decayed? In part they are doubtless attracted by the mild and even climate. Indeed, Mr. Jenness

¹Schauffler, "Romantic America," 280.

says in his history of the Isles of Shoals, "so strangely equable is the temperature, especially during the summer, that the visitors are said sometimes to suspect the mercury has been carefully removed from the thermometers and the tube painted to stand always at 65 degrees". Another potent attraction is the sense of isolation, the forgetfulness of the world and its cares that the islands give. Something may also be due to the favor which they have found in the eyes of writers. Both Whittier and Lowell visited them and wrote in their praise, and a resident of the islands, Celia (Laighton) Thaxter, has described them with a love and intimacy which has made her friends, at least, rank her work with White's "Selbourne," Thoreau's "Walden," and the "Autobiography of Richard Jeffreys."

The Isles of Shoals were among the first places in Maine to become known as a summer resort. Mrs. Thaxter's father, Thomas B. Laighton, a citizen of New Hampshire, having been disappointed in his hope of obtaining some office, determined to live the life of a recluse, and secured the position of keeper of the government lighthouse on White Island, one of the New Hampshire islands of the Shoals group. Ten years later, in 1851, he purchased the island of Appledore, and built a hotel for the accommodation of summer visitors, which was later carried on by his sons Oscar and Frederick¹.

Passing from the Isles to the mainland, we first reach the town of Kittery. Here is the old Pepperell mansion which was for a time somewhat neglected but is now carefully preserved, here also is Sir William's tomb. On two islands in the harbor, both a part of the town, is the government navy yard, which frequently goes by the name of Portsmouth, the New Hampshire city across the river. So, too, Portsmouth gave her name to the treaty which ended the Russian-Japanese war, although it was negotiated and signed in an unpretentious store room of the navy yard. The envoys, however, ate and slept in more luxurious Portsmouth. "The conclusion of the treaty witnessed an international near-tragedy. It is a foreign custom in concluding a peace to toast the respective sovereigns in champagne. The envoys thoughtfully provided the champagne, but when the demand was made upon Uncle Sam to provide the glasses, none were forthcoming, and the solemnity of the occasion did not permit of the indignity of drinking out of bottles, so the conclusion of the treaty was held up while messengers were hastily sent from prohibition Maine to New Hampshire²."

Passing up the coast from Kittery, we come to York, which the natives are ready to inform you was the oldest city in America. The old jail, "with heavy doors and saw blade gratings," built in 1653, still stands. Through the influence of William Dean Howells, for many

¹Jenness, "Isles of Shoals," p. 6, note.

²Some years ago the hotel and nearly every other building on the island were burned and Appledore is now almost entirely abandoned.

years a summer resident at York, and many others, it has been turned into a museum, and contains many curious relics. There is also standing, somewhat remodelled, the old Sewall mansion which was built in 1793. It was the residence of David Sewall, judge of the Maine United States District Court from 1789 to 1818. In 1897 York was visited by the Maine and New Hampshire Historical Societies. An account of the excursion by Mr. Moses A. Safford says: "The visitor as he approaches from the west, is made conscious today, as he was two centuries ago, of the dignity, the quiet grandeur and natural beauty with which the place is invested. It seems to impart to one a feeling of ecclesiastical circumspection and judicial authority¹."

Of the Sewall house, Mr. Safford says, "The location of this house, its position with relation to the street, as well as its architectural pretensions, render it the most conspicuous and imposing building in York, even in modern times. Interiorly its square, ample rooms and high ceiling, finished in colonial style, impart a feeling of judicial antiquity as well as modern comfort. The library, adjoining the reception room, remains unchanged, the shelves of which contain many volumes and interesting documents which belonged to the original proprietor."

York has been and is the summer home of many worthies, having been especially attractive to writers. Among the visitors have been William Dean Howells, Thomas Nelson Page and Thomas Bailey Aldrich. There are also many visitors better known in the financial than the literary world who have erected large and expensive villas. There is a Country Club with golf links and tennis courts, which cost over \$100,000.

York is divided into various villages. The last, as you proceed up the coast, is York Beach, a place of excursionists rather than cottagers or even summer boarders. By making a slight detour you reach Bald Head Cliff, near which are curious rocks with such pleasing names as "the Devil's Pulpit" and "the Devil's Kitchen." A little beyond is Perkins Cove. "Here Charles H. Woodbury, the marine painter, has his house and studio and sufficient land to secure that end of the town from being too closely settled. His summer school of painting is always well attended, and it has been said that in order to give each pupil a rock on which to perch, he has had to split several into less generous sizes. The picturesqueness of the cove itself has been greatly injured by the building of more or less sophisticated studios and an attempt to set the weather-beaten fish houses into regular order." A return to the main road brings the traveller to Ogunquit. The beach is about three miles long, and in some parts nearly five hundred yards wide at low water. Through the sand are scattered tiny bits of garnet which, when the sun plays on them, give it most beautiful colors. Among the many visitors are numerous writers and artists. The poets have formed a Parnassus Club, and the

¹Annual Field Day, Coll. Me. Hist. Soc., II:9:315-316.

artists combine business with pleasure, for many of their most successful pictures have been painted here.

The neighborhood has been much indebted to Mrs. Conarroe of Philadelphia, whose villa is situated on the other side of Bald Head Cliff. Near it she has built a stone memorial chapel, St. Peters by the Sea, a landmark from all sides, and to Ogunquit she has given the Conarroe Free Memorial Library. The next resort is Kennebunkport. It faces the ocean and has a fine and very extensive prospect, but a great part of the charm of the place is the Kennebunk river. Some of the finest cottages front on it, rather than on the ocean. The development of Kennebunkport as a summer village began as early as 1870. It has been noted as a favorite resort of popular novelists. One of the first to come was John T. Trowbridge, and Booth Tarkington and Margaret Deland are accustomed to spend their summers there. Near the mouth of the Saco river is Biddeford Pool, where there is a "conservative and exclusive summer colony patronized largely by New York and western people of wealth."

Next of the important resorts is Old Orchard, "which has perhaps the longest and finest sea beach on the New England coast, is free from rocks, and hard enough for automobile racing, like the famous Florida sands." Its extreme length is nine miles, its width is from one-fourth to a full half-mile. Old Orchard was one of the first places in Maine to become a summer resort, and very appropriately, in view of its later history, it began by attracting excursionists. Early in the nineteenth century parties from neighboring Biddeford and Saco would come to the beautiful beach for a day's pleasure. In 1837 a few persons begged Ebenezer C. Staples to take them to board. He consented; the fame of the beach spread to Canada, and many Montreal families soon came to Old Orchard in their own carriages. With the building of the railroads the demands for accommodation increased, many hotels were erected, and the place was filled with visitors for the summer, short stoppers, and day excursionists. All kinds of amusements were provided for people who found the ocean too tame, and Old Orchard became a sort of Maine Coney Island. For many years the season has opened regularly on the twenty-sixth of June and for a rather curious reason. There is a superstition going back to heathen times that diseases can be healed by bathing in fountain or pool, and that to do it on midsummer's day is specially lucky. The Church made midsummer's day the day of St. John the Baptist, which took over some of the pagan beliefs for itself. The early settlers brought these notions with them, and people within a short journey of the Beach, substituting the ocean for a pool, came on the day of the Baptist to take the well-omened bath. The government of Massachusetts appointed June 25th as the day for the meeting of the Province Court at Saco, and this was another reason

"Handbook of New England," 1917; pp. 701-709.

for gathering there; bath day was slightly delayed, and the plunge was fixed for the day after the court on June 26th.

About half a mile back from Old Orchard Beach is Old Orchard camp ground. "In 1873 an association of which the Reverend I. Luce was president, bought about fifty acres of land as a place for holding religious 'camp meetings.' " "A large portion of this was covered by a dense forest of oak, maple and pine, in which was a valley forming a natural amphitheatre. In this the Association erected convenient seats for the accommodation of seven thousand worshippers. At the center of this stands the speaker's desk, and so remarkable are the acoustic properties of the place that throughout this vast auditorium the voice of an ordinary speaker can be distinctly heard'."

A little up the coast is Casco Bay. It is about twenty-five miles wide and fourteen deep, and is sprinkled with islands which like those in Lakes George, Winnepesaukee and other bodies of water, are said to equal the days of the year in number. As a matter of fact, however, there are only 122; or, if rocks and reefs are counted, about 150. Most of the 122 are named; some are called after former owners, others are named for animals or fish, a few pay honor to the vegetable kingdom, and two have Indian names. "Gin all tales be true," one of the early visitors to the bay saw a merman or triton, and actually cut off its hand; there are numerous witnesses to the presence of the sea serpent; and Mr. Elwell says in his "Portland and Vicinity," that the first reporter of the merman tale "makes the first mention of the sea serpent on our coast seen coiled up like a cable on a rock at Cape Ann. This monster must therefore be considered an ancient inhabitant of our waters, and Casco Bay is one of its favorite haunts. It has frequently been encountered off Cape Elizabeth, and we have good authority for saying that it has even paid our harbor a visit within a few years past'."

Among the principal islands in the Bay are Cushings, Peaks, Long and Little Chebeague. One of the first islands to become a summer resort was Cushings. It is situated at the entrance to the harbor, and "has the most bold and prominent features of all the islands in the bay. Rising to a considerable altitude, its southeastern shore presents a rocky and precipitous front to the sea, terminating at the northeastern end in a castellated bluff [White Head] of perpendicular rock nearly one hundred and fifty feet high." On the other side the island slopes gently downward, "thus presenting a stern rampart to the ocean, shutting it from view, while it smiles upon the smoother waters of the harbor." Before taking its present name, the island was known as Portland, Andrews, Fort and Bangs. A Canadian, Mr. Lemuel Cushing, bought it in 1851, and two years later he erected a hotel that he patriotically named the Ottawa House, it at once became a favorite vacation place for

¹Locke, "Old Orchard," p. 48.

²Elwell, "Portland and Vicinity," p. 5.

his compatriots and remained so for many years, when it was burned. It was afterward rebuilt by New York parties, but was burned again. The government has now acquired a large part of the island for fortification purposes. From the piazza of the house could be obtained the best view of the city in the whole harbor, and from the cupola there was a magnificent prospect of the ocean. Near Cushings and much resembling it in contour, is Peaks Island. Though it has nothing to match White Head, Peaks, says Mr. Elwell, "is in some respects the most beautiful island in our harbor." Like Cushings, it has been much favored by Canadians. For many years it was "an amusement center with a summer theatre maintained by a steamboat company." The building is now used as a roller skating rink. Peaks has the largest all the year 'round population of any of the islands in the bay. It is thought to have been the site of Levett's abortive colony of ten, and was certainly owned by Cleeve. Long Island has the advantage of seclusion, and has been noted for the excellence of its clams and the variety and quality of the fish to be caught off its shores. Twenty years ago it was said, "in the season it is not uncommon for a dozen different excursion parties to visit this spot on the same day. Each is usually attended by a band, and the woods echo and re-echo with music. This is also the headquarters for several regimental associations who have built substantial buildings here." Long Island is now occupied by a summer colony. Near Long Island is Little Chebeague, of which Mr. Elwell says: "It comprises but seventy-two acres, but has some attractive features which make it a place of considerable resort. These are a charming grove on its highest point, with a thicket of undergrowth near at hand; a spring of mineral water, a beach nearly a mile in length and magnificent views of the bay and the city in the distance. On leaving the wharf, at the landing, observe the bank composed wholly of comminuted clam shell, giving evidence that this was one of the feasting places of the Indians. A ramble along the beach will be rewarded by the discovery of many curious forms of marine life, not the least interesting of which are masses of the egg cells of the *buccinum undatum*, resembling an agglomeration of the hulls of corn for which they have been mistaken¹." Little and Great Diamond Islands are largely occupied by wealthy and prominent Portland people.

At the farther end of the bay, near the peninsula of Harpswell, are Bailey's Island, one of the most fashionable of all, and Orr's Island, the scene of Mrs. Stowe's novel, "The Pearl of Orr's Island." Mention should also be made of Ragged Island, said to be the original of Elijah Kellogg's "Elm Island," and Eagle Island, the home of Rear-Admiral Peary. The Admiral owns five other islets, where he keeps his polar dogs.

The chief attractions of Casco Bay are the islands, but the city of

¹Elwell, "Portland and Vicinity," p. 101.

Portland is worthy of a visit. It is called the Forest City, and still deserves the name, although many of its beautiful trees were destroyed in the conflagration of July 4, 1866. There are two handsome boulevards in the city, the Eastern and Western Promenades, which furnish opportunity for long and beautiful drives. There are many costly private buildings; the United States and Cumberland county court houses, built of granite; the post office, of white Vermont marble; and the million dollar city hall, of white Maine granite. Its auditorium is capable of seating three thousand persons, and contains the fourth largest organ in the world, the gift of Mr. Cyrus H. Curtis, in memory of Hermann Kotzshmar, the organist.

There are numerous churches, the oldest being the First Parish (Unitarian) the first stone church in Maine, which was built in 1825. Portland is doubly a cathedral city, both the Episcopalians and the Roman Catholics having a bishop there. "St. Luke's, the Episcopal Cathedral, is built of blue limestone, with trimmings of red and gray freestone, in the early Gothic style. St. Luke's is the first edifice erected by Protestants in New England for a Cathedral or Bishop's Church." The Roman Catholic Cathedral of the Immaculate Conception was completed in 1869. Its height from the ground to the top of a slated spire placed over a tower, is 236 feet. The church is the largest and most expensive in the State. There are several interesting cemeteries which contain the remains and monuments of many of Maine's chief men. There are also several public monuments, including a soldiers' monument and a seated statue of Longfellow by Simmons, and a statue of Thomas B. Reed by Burr C. Miller. The Wadsworth Longfellow house, the first brick house in the city, is preserved as a museum, and contains numerous relics of the poet and his family. Behind it is the Library of the Maine Historical Society wherein are preserved many interesting relics and valuable pamphlets and manuscripts. There is also a city library of 65,000 volumes. The original building, since enlarged, was given by Hon. James P. Baxter; the addition was erected with money bequeathed by Mr. James Walker.

After leaving Portland we reach what, according to E. P. Morris, is distinctively Maine, all before being but a foreshadowing. He says: "It is to the eastward of Portland that the full disclosure comes. As one follows the winding course among the islands and turns through Chandler's Cove, he rounds a red spar and has arrived at once and unmistakably; deep water, smooth masses of granite, and, best remembered of all, the pungent fragrance of spruce and balsam from the dense thickets that crown the little islands. Here it is that we cry out together, 'the real Maine.' This is Miss Jewett's 'Country of the Pointed Firs,' and no one who sails this coast can fail to note the aptness of her descriptive phrase."

¹Elwell, "Portland and Vicinity," pp. 61-62.

²Morris, "Along the Maine Coast," in *Yale Review*, p. 84.

One of the first places of interest that is reached after leaving Portland is Popham Beach. It is four miles long, crescent in shape, and composed of hard sand that makes an excellent driveway. Here at the end of the beach is Fort Popham, an out-of-date granite fort begun in 1860 to protect the mouth of the Kennebec, but never finished. Here also is the site of Fort St. George, built by George Popham in 1607.

One of the oldest of Maine resorts is the Boothbay district containing the towns of Boothbay, Boothbay Harbor and Southport. Mr. Francis B. Greene says in his history of these towns, "Before wealth and fashion had made *pleasure* resorts of the favored places along the coast of Maine, they were to some extent looked upon and visited as *health* resorts." The State Geologist, Dr. Jackson, said in his report of 1837, "This place (Boothbay) is one of the most frequented harbors on the eastern coast of the State, and is a favorite resort for invalids during the summer season, on account of the purity of the air, and the facilities for bathing in clear sea water." A Boston writer compared it with Nahant. The visitors however were largely campers, or boarded in private families. They were an economical folk, and contributed little to the profits of the islanders. But about 1870 a change began, and has continued to the present time at an accelerating rate. Much of the prosperity of the place is due to Associations that bought and developed islands in the bay. In 1870 Squirrel Island was purchased for an Association of gentlemen living in Central Maine. Nelson Dingley was treasurer and among the directors was the president of Bates, O. B. Cheney. Senator Frye took a great interest in the island, building a good cottage there. Another gentleman who did much for the place was Mr. A. H. Davenport. The Association keeps full control, and no land can be sold without its permission. There are boardwalks all over the island, and it has a church, library, casino and hotel. Good water is brought by a pipe from the main land, and there is a submarine cable. In 1875 Mouse Island was bought by twelve Skowhegan citizens, and a hotel was erected. Capital Island, formerly Pig Cove Island, was bought a few years later. The hotel was first owned by John Sidney, a decided "character." It was said that he "had all the charms of the wild Indian and all the vices of tame civilization. He was generous and kind, but what he wanted he took if within reach. He was, in fact, a wholesouled, kindhearted old sinner, and will long be remembered." Another island, that of Southport, is hardly an island at all, since it is connected with the mainland by a bridge. It is not under Association ownership, and has upon it several small hotels and many cottages. The Isle of Springs, so named because of twelve separate springs of pure water which it contains, was bought in 1887 for an Association of residents of Androscoggin and Kennebec counties who the next year built a hotel and nine cottages. There are several resorts on the mainland such as Boothbay

¹Greene, "History of Boothbay, Southport and Boothbay Harbor."

Harbor Village, Bayville, largely developed by two Tufts College professors, who formed a partnership which owned a hotel and a number of cottages; Murray Hill, East Boothbay and Ocean Point. The success of the latter place was chiefly due to the sturdy and continued efforts of Dr. J. S. Crocker and Hon. P. O. Vickery, of Augusta.

Some twenty miles out in the ocean is the island of Monhegan, "the sentinel of New England." George Wharton Edwards, the artist and author, came here as the first cottager in the early nineties. He was followed by his brother artists, who took possession. A friend wrote to Mr. Schaufler that Monhegan was the first place he had seen on this side the water where artists were so much a matter of course that "the natives and even the summer people * * * never crowd around or show the least curiosity as to what we are doing."

Some distance up the coast is the picturesque little village of Damariscotta, on the river of that name. It is six or seven miles from the ocean, and therefore free from fogs; back of the town are a number of beautiful ponds filled with excellent fish. Not far off are the famous Damariscotta shell heaps where the Indians came to eat oysters and dry them for winter use. The heaps are acres in extent and sixteen feet deep. Twelve miles off is Pemaquid, famous in Colonial history. Remnants of the old fort and settlement have been uncovered and carefully preserved.

We now come to the finest part of our trip. Mr. Morris says: "The height of interest and dignity is in Penobscot Bay and the region of Mt. Desert, where islands of every variety of size and shape and color, scattered in a kind of ordered irregularity over a broad bay, and surrounded by a ring of mountains close to the sea, present beyond comparison or question the climax of beauty on the New England coast." Among the islands that are now popular summer resorts are Vinalhaven, North Haven, Deer Isle, Isle au Haut and Islesborough. On Islesborough is the village of Dark Harbor, reputed to be the seat of the most exclusive summer colony on the Maine coast. Somewhat up the bay is Rockland, a kind of distributing center for tourists, and which with its fine view and excellent drives is developing into a summer resort itself. A little farther up the bay is Camden. This is a beautiful but quiet place. It has from the first been pre-eminently a "cottage" resort, and to most of the "cottages" the name can be properly applied, though there are a few expensive "villas." The first vacationers were half a dozen Bangor visitors, Mrs. A. P. Guild and two daughters, and three daughters of Mr. Frederick Dillingham, who came in 1857. Other Bangor people followed, and then visitors came from all parts of the country. Until the nineties the outsiders usually spent only a few weeks here. The first summer cottager was Caleb Holyoke, of Brewer, who bought land for a cottage in 1881. About this time many residents of Philadelphia came, and there was a great boom in real estate. In 1899

the neighboring town of Rockport rose to prominence as a summer resort, and many of the new comers became legal residents, voting and paying their personal taxes here. While the number of their votes may not have decreased, one may suspect that the number of dollars paid in taxes did, considerably". Camden has a combination of attractions. The view of the bay is very fine, and within the limits of the town are five hills over a thousand feet high, and each of them and many of the lesser ones have at its foot a beautiful lake.

Farther up the bay on a little bay of its own near the mouth of the Penobscot river, is Belfast, "a city with a busy ship-building past, a quiet, restful present, and a future full of summer hope and Maine grown tobacco". On the other side of the bay is Castine, a prosperous and beautiful summer resort full of historical associations. The Penobscot river, as well as the bay, has beautiful banks where are many delightful resorts, and the sail up the river to the head of the tide at Bangor is said to be the most beautiful of the kind in the country, unless we except the ascent of the Hudson.

Next to Penobscot Bay is Frenchman's Bay, in which is the island of Mt. Desert, one of the chief watering places of the country. The first reference to Mt. Desert as a summer resort appeared in the columns of the New York *Tribune* sixty years ago. In the summer of 1858 Mr. Carter, a Washington correspondent of the paper, took a voyage along the coast with three friends, partly for pleasure, partly for the study of marine zoology. He wrote letters to the *Tribune*, subsequently published in book form, describing his trip. In the last letter he highly praised Mt. Desert for its fitness for a "resort for artists and for seaside loungers". He was followed by many of the leading artists of the country, who by their praise and their pictures did much to make the island famous. They "gave fanciful names to some of the picturesque places, such as Eagle Lake, the Beehive, Echo Lake, and the Porcupine Islands." Dr. Street says of this practice of outside naming: "It is easy to deride the habit of summer visitors of giving fancy names to points of interest, and the names thus given are often inappropriate and sentimental. Not a few of the local and traditional names at Mount Desert are thoroughly good. Hull's Cove and Town Hill have a good colonial ring. Ironbound Island, Otter Creek, and Seal Cove are obviously appropriate. Pretty Marsh Harbor and Dram Island and Rum Key and Junk of Pork have a local flavor which commends them. It must, however, be acknowledged that the names of too many of the hills and streams and coves are very commonplace. It might still be well to substitute for such names as Dog, Goose, and Ox, Green, Brown, and Robinson, some of the historic names associated with the island, such

¹Robinson, "Camden and Rockport," Chapter 66.

²Emerson. "Latchstring," p. 70.

³Street, "Mount Desert," p. 325, note.



MT. DESERT

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as Champlain, Cadillac, Iberville, Westbrook, Bernard. These might even be as appropriate for post-offices, as Tremont or McKinley or Sorrento."

"In the years just before the war a few artists, seeking beauty of scenery, found their way to Mt. Desert, then slowly, in the years between 1860 and 1875, families began to come. The modest houses of the farming and fishing folk who welcomed, or rather reluctantly received, these explorers, grew rapidly into little boarding-houses and then into bigger boarding-houses. The callings of the steamer from Portland grew more frequent. * * From the first, the boarding contingent was largely made up of people of moderate means and of simple tastes. Probably the island was the scene of more plain living and high thinking than any other summer resort on the coast".

Although artists were among the first comers to Mt. Desert, the island later was less popular with them. At Mt. Desert everything is clear, the colors are brilliant, the mountains appear sharply cut. It is claimed that there is a lack of atmosphere, of the charm of delicate suggestion. Mr. Schauffler replies to such criticism first by citing "that veteran traveller Ambassador Bryce," who "prefers the clear sharp days when the northern character of the island is more boldly defined, to the misty romantic effects when the rounded gentle mountains remind one more of the Mediterranean Sea." Then after dwelling on the brilliant beauty of October at Mt. Desert, he adds: " * * There is another side to the story. Mt. Desert is not pure Norway, it is Norway and Italy combined," and he says that on one rare day he stood on the summit of Sargeant, "breathing in the ozone of Scandinavia while feasting my eyes on a vision filled with the dreamy poetry of the South. I have never from any high place in the old world seen a sight comparable in its melting beauty to that first glimpse. The hard, bold northern landscape had only needed an hour's sunlight and a little soft haze to become tender, mystical, almost Mediterranean in quality". The first part of the island to become the seat of a colony was Southwest Harbor, then Bar Harbor developed in a similar manner but on a larger scale and to greater fame, then came Northeast Harbor, and finally Seal Harbor. In Southwest Harbor the cottage period did not begin until 1885, and after twenty years there were still many boarders in the town and the hotels did a thriving business. Bar Harbor began to take boarders in the sixties, in 1867 the first hotel (a small one) and the first cottage were erected; in 1868 a wharf was built, and the steamer began to call at Bar Harbor as well as Southwest Harbor. Daniel Rodick, whose family had been on the island for a century, began the building which afterward developed into the enormous Rodick. "The Bay View House fol-

"Street, "Mount Desert," pp. 330-331.

"Schauffler, "Romantic America," p. 331.

lowed in 1869. This was vastly enlarged into the Grand Central, and finally removed. The Atlantic was built in 1870, burned and rebuilt in 1873, and later became the Louisbourg. The first part of the Newport was built in 1871; the Saint Sauveur was rebuilt after being burned in 1873; the Rockaway in 1873; the Deering, afterward enlarged into the Marlborough, in 1873; the Ocean House in 1874; the Belmont in 1879; the West End in 1880. The decade from 1875 to 1885 was the period of the prosperity of the hotel life, the Fish Pond at Rodicks was famous all over the country, and the name of Bar Harbor was synonymous with a gay, unconventional, out-of-door existence, with merry courtships and happy, irresponsible days." In 1880 the number of cottages began to increase rapidly and drove most of the hotels out of business, now however, there are some signs of a revival.

Northeast Harbor remained long in isolation. In 1880 Bishop Doane of Albany, President Eliot, whose son Charles had headed a body of campers not far off, and Mr. J. H. Curtis of Boston, built modest cottages. Bishop Doane afterward said: "There were certain difficulties and disadvantages in the remoteness of the place, but on the whole the life of constant contact with nature, untouched and unspoiled, in this marvelous atmosphere, and the relations established with the people who lived here, more than compensated for whatever privations one had to bear."

About 1870 the brothers Clement, who with their father were at Seal Harbor, finding that the porgies by which they were trying to get a living were becoming rather scarce, determined to abandon their business and become fishers of men. Their father joined them, they put a new story on an old house and cast their lines for rusticators. Soon a modest hotel was built. The first cottages were erected in 1883, when Admiral (then Commander) Crowningshield built "the Anchorage," and two Pennsylvania gentlemen also built. In the early nineties important roads were completed, "and Seal Harbor from the little fishing hamlet of 1874, had become a large, prosperous summer resort."

The wealthy summer residents have done much to close the walk by the shore, and to make the island less agreeable for persons of moderate means. Cousins doubtless of the Italians who wished to put electric launches into Venice, they have got automobiles admitted to the island. It is said on the other hand that the butterfly season is short even at Bar Harbor, that the old tradition of regard for beauty is still in force, that the expensive gardens are naturalistic and in keeping with the scenery of the island. There is a beautiful Building of Arts, and an outdoor amphitheatre with a setting which recalls the charm of Greece. Chamber concerts of great excellence are given, and also plays. From working on the beautiful cottages, the inhabitants of Mt. Desert have acquired a love for and a knowledge of art, and an Arts and Crafts Society is teaching them to put their new feelings for beauty to practical use.

In balancing the advantages and disadvantages of the cottage and the hotel period, Rev. Dr. Street, long a loyal and honored resident of Mt. Desert, says: "The sale of land for cottages meant vastly increased resources for landholders, and the increased income of the towns from taxation meant better schools and roads and bridges. The summer residents helped in the support of churches; they raised the standards of living, and, if they introduced some undesirable luxuries, emphasized some unfortunate class distinctions and were responsible for some vices formerly unknown, yet on the whole their influence was healthy in matters sanitary, social and religious".

The generosity of the summer residents has also helped to preserve some of the most beautiful places of Mt. Desert. Mr. Rockefeller, Jr., who has a summer home at Seal Harbor, has contributed liberally for this purpose. In 1916 five thousand acres of land, including virtually all the mountains, were given to the United States government for a park. They were formerly accepted by President Wilson, and were proclaimed by him the Sieur de Monts National Monument. After the best points on Mt. Desert had been built on, attention was turned to the Cranberry Isles opposite, and in the latter half of the eighties cottages and a hotel were erected. The coast from Mt. Desert to Eastport, though not equal in charm to that from Kittery to Mt. Desert, is still fine.

Maine's coast is wonderfully beautiful but those who are specially seeking health or sport turn to the interior. The State has one great Spa, that at the famous Poland Spring. In 1794, Jabez Ricker of Alfred exchanged his farm in that town for one on the present Ricker Hill in South Poland. He soon began building an inn which was opened in 1797, and became a great stopping place for farmers on their way to Portland, partly because of the energy of Jabez's son, Wentworth, who had succeeded his father in the management of the inn, and had done much to secure the building of a country road from Portland to Paris past his house. With the coming of the railroads, trade fell off, and Wentworth's son Hiram "branched out into the business of buying and selling sheep and dealing in wool and lumber." In 1844 the curative properties of the spring were accidentally discovered, its fame spread, and people came to visit Poland and drink of the famous water. In 1859 the water began to be shipped away in barrels for sale. At the close of the first two years the sales of the water had increased from the single three-gallon demijohn, shipped by the Portland stage at the beginning, to a thousand barrels. * * Today it is sent throughout the United States and Canada; to South America, Cuba, England, the continent of Europe, India, Egypt". In 1876 a new hotel, the Poland Spring, was built, although the old one, the Mansion House, was still kept running. In 1893 the Rickers purchased the Maine State building

*Street, "Mount Desert," pp. 327-328.

*Poland Spring, Centennial Souvenir.

at the Columbian Exposition, took it down, carried it to Poland Spring and re-erected it with some modifications, and it is now used as an art gallery and library. The present Poland Spring estate contains 3,000 acres. There is every opportunity for tennis, golf and other games, and not far away are lakes which give first class fishing. The Mansion House is open throughout the winter for persons who come to enjoy coasting, snowshoeing, and similar recreations, and a promising effort is being made to make Maine a winter as well as a summer resort.

Mr. Edward Abbott in an article in *Harpers* for June, 1877, says: "We call Maine the 'Pine Tree State.' Lake State would be an equally appropriate and distinctive appellation. Her forests are gradually falling before the advancing stroke of the lumberman, but her lakes can never be lost out of her mountain-guarded territory, nor can their charms ever be lessened by the touch of settlement and civilization. There are more than fifteen hundred of them laid down upon the better maps in use; hundreds more are too small to be enumerated in a general survey; while many others lie hidden in regions that have not yet been explored."

There are five lake systems, the Sebago, Belgrade, Rangeley, Washington County, and Moosehead. Sebago lake is not far from Portland, and supplies the city with pure water, but the lakes and streams connected with it and forming part of its system extend into York, Androscoggin and Oxford counties. Sebago is the lake usually first sought by out-of-the-State fishermen. The fish at the beginning of the season are not attracted by the fly, and most of the fishing is bait fishing. Sebago is specially noted for the size of its fish. Mr. Emerson says: "The salmon at Sebago are now becoming the record fish of Maine waters. Catches, though not many, are made each spring weighing from ten to eighteen pounds. Mr. Charles K. Bispham, of Philadelphia, a skillful and persistent angler, who for fifteen years has made a study of game fish and will fish nowhere else, tells me that he has seen on the spawning beds Sebago salmon weighing thirty pounds and more."

More famous are the Rangeley lakes, the first in Maine to attract outsiders. "In 1868 the Oquossoc" Angling Association, among the first and most notable of the fishing clubs of the country, was formed and located at Indian Rock on the north side of Mooselookmeguntic."²⁸ The chief fish taken at Rangeley are the red spotted square-tail trout, which are said to be larger than any of their kind in the world. The Rangeley system obtains its name from an Englishman, James Rangeley. Of his early life, little is known, he had been a merchant in Philadelphia, a land speculator in Virginia, and finally turned his attention to Maine, and in 1825 bought 65,000 to 70,000 acres of wild land around the lakes which now bear his name. He settled down to live on his estate, brought his

²⁸ The Indian name of Rangeley Lake.

²⁹ Emerson, "Latchstring," p. 94.

wife and sons, built mills and a very expensive road, and had great and wise plans for the development of his domain, but these things could not be done at once, and his fate was much like that of General Knox. "Mr. Rangeley and his wife were reputed to possess between them a considerable fortune, but his plans were on so great a scale, and his ability to deal with the rude and the shrewd so limited, that he worked at no small disadvantage, at heavy cost and finally with serious loss," and ultimately sold out and removed to Portland. The country was subsequently developed in the manner he planned and became a great lumbering and sporting region."

In central Maine are the Belgrade Lakes, quietly beautiful, and the home of the small-mouthed black bass which has been called, "inch for inch and pound for pound, the gamiest fish that swims." Square-tail trout, pickerel and perch may also be caught here. "The remarkable accessibility of these waters, with such places as Augusta, Waterville, and Winthrop, with modern and comfortable hotels, as centers of radiation by trolley and motor car, places them among the most popular and frequented big ponds of the State."

Near the eastern border of the State in Washington county are a number of beautiful lakes which have but recently attracted the attention of visitors. Those who seek the charms of nature find them here, while the angler can show his skill by landing a battling ouananiche. In the border river, St. Croix, may be taken excellent sea-salmon.

But it is not her coasts or her lakes, but her forests that today are most characteristic of Maine. "The traveler and camper-out in Maine," says John Burroughs, "unless he penetrate its more northern portions, has less reason to remember it as a pine-tree State than a birch-tree State, and fifty years hence, as Edward Abbott prophesied, Maine may be the lake State, but today neither the demands of settlers nor of the various paper mills have stripped her of her trees; more than two-thirds of the State is forest land."

The gateway to Northern Maine, the sportsman's paradise, is Bangor, at the head of navigation on the Penobscot. The city, too, is something more than a place of passage, for in the pool below the dam a skillful fisherman may land one of the famous Penobscot salmon which every loyal Bangorean will swear is the finest fish that swims. Bangor is the chief city of Eastern Maine. It is situated at the junction of the little Kenduskeag with the Penobscot. The business section is in a narrow valley, but the city has climbed the low though rather steep hills on either side and is spreading over the level country. In 1911 Bangor was visited by a severe fire. The loss is now nearly repaired, but nothing can restore, at least for many years, the beautiful trees that were killed, and some fine old houses have been succeeded by ones which,

"Abbott, "The Androscoggin Lakes," p. 26.

"Quoted in Emerson's "Latchstring," p. 175.

if more elaborate and fanciful, lack the simple dignity of their predecessors. The fire, however, gave opportunity for the erection of a new library and a new high school, both much needed, and for a new Federal building on which the United States government spent much money, but which has been criticized as too severely plain.

From Bangor, a few hours ride brings one into the depths of the woods at Moosehead Lake. Moosehead is nearly forty miles long and from one to fifteen wide, the largest of the Maine lakes, and also the largest wholly within the boundaries of New England. A little more than half way up the lake, at its narrowest part, is Mount Kineo, rising to a height of 1,760 feet above sea level,² and having what is perhaps the finest mountain outlook in New England. It is said to be "grander even than that from Mt. Washington, because the waters of the lake, stretching out in great arms in almost every direction, add variety not found in unmixed mountain scenery." In the Indian language, Kineo means high bluff, and formerly the Indians came here from a considerable distance to obtain hard rock to be made into weapons and domestic utensils. From the foot of the mountain a spur extends into the lake, and at its tip has been built a great hotel, the Kineo House, where every modern luxury and convenience may be obtained. The lake and the streams flowing into it furnish excellent sport for fishermen, and as the lake furnishes fish, so does the surrounding forest game.

Not far to the east of the southern part of the lake is Katahdin Iron Works, so-called from certain abandoned iron works which cost a million dollars. "Pennsylvania iron killed the industry here and the town decayed, to revive as a health resort because of its springs strongly impregnated with iron, and its bracing air." There is remarkably fine scenery, some good drives, and good fishing.

Forty miles north of Katahdin Iron Works is Mt. Katahdin, Maine's chief mountain, whose highest peak is 5,215 feet above sea level. Katahdin is really a ridge about ten miles long, "not unlike a giant interrogation point upside down," "but as its huge bulk rises abruptly on the south side from the dead level of the lake country, it has the effect of being a lone peak." East, west and north, but especially north, are long stretches of forest unbroken, yet so spotted with lakes and ponds and laced by streams that it may be easily and swiftly penetrated by canoe, and the pleasure as one glides along the waters is well worth the exertion entailed by the occasional "carry." Some of the rivers are quiet and gentle, as if created for the special benefit of the amateur; others are swift and dangerous, and should be shunned by all but the expert. The great forests have an indescribable charm, the waters are well supplied with fish, and the woods with game; for both the lover of nature and the sportsman Maine is a land of delight. But this is not all. Of the

²Only about 760 feet, however, above the lake.

forty-eight States in the Union, Maine alone possesses a frontier. There are still wide districts whose pines and lakes have never been seen by civilized man, and the visitor to Northern Aroostook may, if he will, feel the rapture and render the service of the explorer and discoverer."

"Bangor and Aroostook Guide Book (1901), by Winfield M. Thompson.





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CORRECTIONS AND ADDITIONS

Page 64—At end of note, for Professor Taury read Prof. William F. Genong of Smith College.

Page 404—In note, the statement is made in certain memoranda of William L. Marcy, published in the *American Historical Review* for July, 1919, that Buchanan wavered for months between Clifford and Toucy, and that almost at the last moment he announced his intention of appointing Mr. Clifford, whose social qualifications were said to be superior to those of Mr. Toucy. Mr. Marcy said: "The course of Mr. Buchanan is the most remarkable case of indecision that ever fell under my observation."

Page 604—In last paragraph, where word "sheriff" occurs, read: county attorney.

Page 653—For heavy artillery read field artillery. After "Santiago campaign" insert: In 1899 the artillery battalion was sent to Cuba.

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